

EDUCATION (IRELAND).

REPORT

OF

MR. F. H. DALE,

His Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Board of Education, on Primary
Education in Ireland.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.



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TERMS OF REFERENCE.

To inquire and report how typical Irish Elementary Day Schools compare with similarly circumstanced Public Elementary Schools in England as regards Premises, Equipment, Staffing, and Instruction; and to what cause differences in economy and efficiency appear to be chiefly due.

REPORT of MR. F. H. DALE, His Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Board of Education, on PRIMARY EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

1. During my stay in Ireland, which extended from April 2nd to June 9th, I visited 87 ordinary National Schools, situated in the following districts:—Dublin, Belfast, Omagh, Galway, Donegal, Sligo, Killarney, and Cork. I also visited eight large Convent Schools and six of the Model Schools, viz., those at Belfast, Omagh, Galway, Londonderry, Sligo, and Cork. I had the advantage of being accompanied in almost all cases by the Inspectors of the various districts, and of being furnished with their reports upon the Schools. I was thus able to ascertain to what extent any individual School might be considered typical, in its merits and defects, of the general standard of education in the locality, as well as to note from my own observation the common features presented by Schools in widely-separated parts of the country.

2. A series of detailed reports on the individual Schools that I visited would necessarily contain much information which would be unimportant for the purpose of my enquiry, and which is already embodied in the reports of the Inspectors of the Board of National Education. I have, therefore, confined myself to stating the general conclusions at which I arrived, and have referred to individual Schools only where it was desirable for the sake of greater clearness.

3. The points, in respect of which I was directed to compare English and Irish Primary Schools, are, as stated in the terms of reference, premises, equipment, staffing, and instruction, and I have accordingly arranged my report under those heads. It would, however, be very inconvenient to follow this division in the case of the Model Schools, which, by reason of their history and constitution, occupy quite an exceptional position in Irish education. I have therefore treated certain questions connected with them as a whole, in a separate Excursus; and the observations which I now proceed to make under each of the heads mentioned must be understood to refer only to the ordinary National Schools and Convent Schools.

Appendix L.

PREMISES.

1. The requirements which a School-building should satisfy may be conveniently summarised under the heads laid down in Article 85 (a) of the Code for English Public Elementary Schools.

- (a.) It should be properly designed and arranged for efficient organisation and instruction.
- (b.) The site should be suitable and sufficient.
- (c.) The building should provide sufficient space to accommodate the scholars without overcrowding.
- (d.) It should be properly ventilated, lighted, heated, and cleaned.
- (e.) It should be suitably provided with out-offices, cloak-rooms, and lavatories.

2. The last four of these requirements, it will be observed, relate primarily to the sanitary condition of the School-building; the first to its

specific use as a School; and they are to some extent independent of each other. In the early days of primary education efficient instruction was often given under most insanitary conditions, while on the other hand it is clear that a building may be perfectly sanitary and yet, by reason of awkwardness of its shape or structure, be quite unsuitable for the work of teaching.

3. It should also be observed that the requirements vary very much in importance. In estimating their necessity the size and character of the School—in particular the fact of its being a town or country School—must be taken into consideration. For example, a site large enough to provide a playground is in a large town School necessary for the health and exercise of the scholars; in a small rural School situated in the midst of open country and attended by children coming from a distance, it may often be dispensed with. The same may be said as to cloak-rooms and lavatories; in a small School of twenty or thirty children a porch, or even a large cupboard, in the Schoolroom and a few basins may meet the necessities of the case; in a town School the number of the children forbids such simple expedients. Proper ventilation, lighting, and cleaning are necessary in all Schools alike; yet the fact cannot be ignored that their neglect must have far more disastrous consequences in a large town School filled with hundreds of children coming from poor and insanitary homes than in a small School in the country, where the children have plenty of fresh air and exercise.

Premises of Town Schools.

4. The town Schools that I visited were chiefly those of Dublin and Belfast.

Insufficient
number of class
rooms.

5. The most common defect in the premises of these Schools, when compared with English Elementary Schools in large towns, is the insufficiency of class-rooms. In the ordinary School in Dublin and Belfast the great majority of the scholars are taught in a single large room 50 feet, or even more in length, and 25 to 40 feet in breadth. The minimum floor-space allowed per child in average attendance varies somewhat in Ireland, but does not exceed nine square feet, and is usually eight square feet, so that in a School of 250 to 300 children, 150 children, or three classes, may be gathered in a single room. Out of 20 large Schools that I inspected—including Convent Schools—I found not one which did not answer to this description, and in eleven out of the twenty more than three classes were being taught in the same room. Of the evil effects of this defective planning on the instruction I shall have occasion to speak later; it is sufficient here to observe that even to maintain order under such conditions requires considerable skill on the part of the teachers, while instruction in such subjects as Reading or Singing is almost an impossibility. When these Schools are crowded up to or beyond the limit of their accommodation at eight square feet—as I found to be the case, for example, in the Ballymacarrett district of Belfast—and the teachers are but ordinarily efficient, the noise and confusion are very great.

6. I have not been able to obtain statistics as to the exact proportion of the large Schools in Belfast or Dublin, where the conditions, which I have described, prevail; but my own experience and the enquiries which I made of the Inspectors of the Board have left no doubt that to put it at 65 to 70 per cent. would be a most moderate estimate.

7. In England the type of School-building, upon which I have commented, though it has not yet disappeared, has been, during the last twenty years, largely superseded by Schools in which ten square feet of floor-space have been allowed for every child, and each class, as a rule, has its own room. In

the city of Bristol, which may be fitly compared with Belfast, there are now only 47* out of approximately 230 departments—or about 20 per cent. of the Schools—in which three classes are being taught in one room. In the County Borough of Lincoln—to take a smaller town—where the Schools have been erected purely by voluntary effort, there are ten such cases out of thirty-seven Departments.

8. The class-rooms attached to the town Schools in Ireland are not only insufficient in number; they are frequently too small for a class of ordinary size. As the class cannot be divided without impairing the organisation and instruction, the result is that the class-room is overcrowded. I found, for example, in several of the Belfast Schools that I visited, over 30 children being taken in a room which, even at eight square feet per child, would accommodate only 18. A frequent means of meeting the deficiency of proper class-rooms is to use the cloak-rooms or lobbies for the purpose—a plan which, in bad weather, when the room is filled with wet clothes, is obviously most objectionable.

Small size of class-rooms.

9. Neither the cleaning nor the maintenance of the School buildings in a state of good repair receives such careful attention as in England. Out of 35 town Schools which I visited only 20 were satisfactory in these respects, while of the remainder 4 were in a condition which can only be termed disgraceful. Out of 66 Departments in the towns of my own district, viz., Lincoln, Mansfield, and Newark, I find that there are only three cases in which I have had to complain during the past year of the want of cleanliness. Dingy walls or ceilings, broken woodwork or plaster, and dirty floors are far more common in Irish town schools than in English. From these last observations I am glad to be able to except the Convent Schools. I found them in all cases kept in an excellent state of repair, cleanliness, and neatness.†

Cleaning and repairs.

10. In respect of their provision for cloak-rooms and lavatories, the Irish town Schools are decidedly inferior as a whole to the English. The cloak-rooms are often very inadequate for the number of children in attendance; and I found large and important Schools, *e.g.*, the Mayo-street National Senior School, and the Agnes-street Central School in Belfast, where the caps and cloaks are hung in the School-room—an arrangement which in wet weather is distinctly insanitary. Very few of the Schools have any proper lavatories of the kind to be seen in most large Schools in England; to many ‡ the observation made by Mr. Headen, Senior Inspector of the Dublin District, applies, as my own experience proved:—"The only substitute for a lavatory is a tap generally in a corner, with sloppy surroundings."

Cloak-room and lavatories.

11. The Schools are supplied with out-offices, and, as a rule, they are at a suitable distance from the School, though there is a small number of cases—in Dublin, five—where the offices are either on the building or too near the School. In respect of their cleanliness, the offices in the Irish town Schools impressed me much more favourably than those in the country Schools; and it should be added that the sanitary authorities in some of the Irish cities have recently devoted considerable attention to this point.

Out-offices.

12. The number of cases in which the site is too small to furnish a proper playground is considerable; and this fact is particularly regrettable in view of the special need of fresh air and exercise for large numbers of the children in Belfast and Dublin. From a return prepared for me, it appears that out of 168 Schools in Dublin, 39 have no playground, or an unsuitable one—generally a very small yard. I could not obtain a similar return for Belfast as a whole, but § Mr. O'Connor, Inspector of the North District of Belfast, reports that as many as 50 Schools in that part of the city have no playgrounds. Out of 66 town Schools which I have taken in my own district, I find there are 9 Schools|| in which the playground is insufficient.

Want of playgrounds.

* My colleague, Mr. C. H. B. Elliott, who has kindly collected this information for me, adds that, in nearly all the 47 cases referred to, improved conditions are being required by the Board of Education.

† It is interesting to note that the Assistant Commissioners to the Powis Commission in 1868 especially commended the Convent Schools on these same grounds (p. 283, Vol. I. of Report).

‡ See p. 6, Appendix to Report of the Commissioners for the year 1901.

§ See p. 127, Appendix to Report for 1901; and pp. 114–115 of the same book.

|| One of these Schools is to be discontinued in 1904.

**Ventilation and
lighting.**

13. The ventilation and lighting are generally satisfactory in the larger main-rooms of the Irish town Schools; but not so commonly in the smaller class-rooms. By the kindness of one of the Inspectors for the Belfast District I obtained a return showing that in no less than 90 Belfast Schools badly lighted or ventilated rooms are in use, and he adds that the Schools in question are generally those having but few and small class-rooms. I was particularly impressed with the fact that even in certain Schools ranked among the best in Ireland, *e.g.*, St. Enoch's Presbyterian School at Belfast, and the St. Vincent's Convent School at Cork, I found class-rooms being used which would have long since been condemned in England on the ground of inadequate lighting and ventilation.

Heating.

14. My visit did not take place at a time when heating of the Schools was necessary; but, as a rule, the means for heating were adequate, and the Inspectors report favourably on this point in the town Schools.

Conclusion.

15. As the result of my investigation, I have no hesitation in reporting that both in point of convenience for teaching and in the requirements necessary for the health of teachers and scholars, the average School-building in Dublin and Belfast is markedly inferior to the average School-building now in use in English cities of corresponding size, *e.g.*, Bradford, Bristol, or Nottingham.

16. A comparison of the worst as well as the best School-buildings in the great cities of the two countries does but reinforce this conclusion. It is difficult to give in words any adequate conception of the buildings which are classified by the Irish Inspectors as bad. In point of unsuitability and unhealthiness, they far exceed any premises which it has ever fallen to my lot to condemn in England. The North Thomas-street Infant School in Belfast, containing about 50 children, is held in a most unhealthy room, 7 feet 7 inches high, lighted and ventilated only by a few tiny windows about 3 feet by 1½ feet in size. There is no cloak-room, no play-ground, the out-offices are a few yards off the door, and quite exposed. Similarly the St. Patrick's Schools in Tyrone-street, Dublin, are described as follows by the Inspector with absolute correctness, as I can testify from my own observation:—"These Schools are entirely unsuitable. The situation is extremely bad—in the very centre of the most infamous part of the city. The floor-space in the Boys' School is sufficient for 190 pupils only, whereas the average attendance for the past year was over 220, and the number on the rolls 366. The sanitary conditions are unsatisfactory. Besides the Schools proper, an adjacent dwelling-house has been taken for some years, the rooms of which are used as class-rooms. The children are occasionally packed into these rooms like bees in a hive, with terrible consequences to the atmosphere."

The fact that such buildings, though exceptionally bad, are still in use as National Schools in cities of the importance of Belfast and Dublin, is in itself a sign of a low standard with regard to the conditions which all School buildings should satisfy.

Premises of Country Schools.

17. The premises of the country schools—under which head are comprised at least three-fourths of the Irish Schools—are as a whole much more satisfactory than those of the town Schools. There is, as a rule, ample space for the children—in fact, the School would frequently accommodate far more children than are ever present; the lighting and ventilation are usually sufficient. Most of those that I inspected, though not so ornamental externally as English country schools, compared not unfavourably

with them in point of the essential requirements of a good School-building. They had often been built at a comparatively recent date, since in many country districts there has been considerable activity manifested by the clergy and managers during the last ten years in the provision of new buildings.

18. The most marked defect in schools otherwise satisfactory was the want of cleanliness. The floors were generally dirty; and the walls and cupboards often covered with dust. Small repairs to windows, floors, and doors had also been often neglected. A more serious matter is the condition of the out-offices, which were rarely quite clean, and were at times indescribably filthy; out of the hundreds of Schools that I have inspected in various districts of England, I have never seen any in which the offices were kept with such utter disregard of health and decency as several cases that I saw during my short stay in Ireland. It is hardly necessary to point out that this neglect prevents the primary Schools from accomplishing one of their main objects—the training of the children in habits of cleanliness and order; and it is regrettable to observe that the same matter was singled out for complaint by the Powis Commissioners.*

Want of cleanliness.

19. As I have already said, I cannot report from personal experience on the heating of the Schools; but my inquiries convinced me that the complaints of the Inspectors as to its frequent inadequacy in the country Schools are only too well founded.† The fuel in the form of turf is in most cases provided by the pupils, with occasional help from the teacher, manager, or parents; and the supply is often not obtained sufficiently early in the morning, or runs short at times when it is most needed.

20. It is also necessary to point out that in the country, as in the town, there exist Schools which fall far short of the standard attained even by the worst Schools in the rural districts of England. The Schools at Keelogs in the Omagh district, Lackagh and Kilmorgan in the Sligo district, are among the examples that I encountered. They are old thatched cottages, with low roofs, broken floors, and tiny windows. The ventilation was most unsatisfactory, and in the winter when the door cannot be kept open, they must be unhealthy. There were either no out-offices, or they were of the most primitive kind.

Unsuitable buildings.

Causes of Inferiority of Irish School Buildings.

21. The inferiority of the Irish to the English School buildings has undoubtedly been due in part to a marked difference in the expenditure upon their erection. In Ireland, during the year ended March 31st, 1902, 18,593 new School-places were provided at a total cost of £79,395 12s. 0d., or about £4 5s. 6d. per head (exclusive of the value of the site for new Schools). The cost was thus lower than that incurred in England even twenty years ago. During the twelve years ending December 31st, 1882, accommodation was provided for 280,146 children at a total cost of £1,660,369 (exclusive of the value of sites), or at a cost per head of about £5 18s. 0d. Since 1882, however, the cost of School-building in England has steadily risen, owing partly to the increased expense of labour and

Economy in building.

* Vol. I. of Report, p. 321.

† See Appendix to Report of Commissioners for 1901, pp. 4, 5, 10, 12, 15, 90, *et pass.*

material, partly to the rise in educational requirements. It is now estimated for Board Schools—for which alone exact statistics can be given—at £15 4s. 8½d. per head, though it is to be remembered that this sum includes the cost of the site. It is, however, certain that the modern School-buildings in England (exclusive of the value of their site) cost as a rule £10 per head.

22. This difference in expenditure has resulted from the greater cheapness of the plans upon which the majority of Irish schools have been built; and the saving, unfortunately, has been chiefly effected in connection with the construction of the large town Schools. How great that saving is, may be seen by the fact that according to the estimate made by Mr. Cochrane, Senior Surveyor to the Irish Board of Works, Primary School for 91 children, built according to the regulations of the English Board of Education, would cost £819; if, however, it were built according to the existing Irish rules, it would only have cost £381, and would have been regarded as accommodating 120 children. It is not necessary, however, for me to discuss the detailed differences in the Irish and English plans, which have given rise to this difference of cost.

Town Schools.

23. It is in dealing with the erection of large town Schools that alterations of the existing plans are most certainly necessary. Those Schools, as I have already shown, have been constructed on essentially mistaken principles, and are unsuitable for the efficient conduct of the School-work. As a matter of fact, many of them have been designed with a view to their use for other purposes than that of the instruction of children. The provision of play-grounds may be left out of sight as unfortunately impracticable in most cases; but it is certain that unless further class-rooms, better lighting and ventilation, and more adequate cloak-rooms are provided, a large number of Schools in such towns as Dublin and Belfast will neither be healthy nor reach a proper standard of efficiency in their work.

24. Nor is it necessary to assume any very high standard with regard to the alterations required. In the case of new Schools the requirements considered essential in England and Scotland should be satisfied as fully as possible. But in the case of existing Schools, the State may be contented with an approximation to these requirements. Thus, instead of the provision of a class-room for each class, the division of many of the large rooms in the town Schools by glazed partitions, so as to have only two classes in one room, would, in my opinion, be a sufficient change to ensure a great advance in efficiency. Similarly, an enlargement of or addition to the existing windows, together with the provision of some Tobin Tubes or other artificial means of ventilation, would be all that might be asked for in the case of many Schools. But even these alterations, in view of the size and number of the town Schools needing them, would require a large addition to the present expenditure incurred by Managers and the State. Exact estimates are, of course, impracticable; but I can have no doubt that in Belfast alone there must be at least 100 Schools where to attain even this approximation to satisfactory conditions, or, in other words, to bring the buildings up to the level, not of the best, but the second-rate English Schools, would cost £100 to £150 per School.

25. The absence of a local authority charged like the English local authorities with the duty of aiding the provision and maintenance of the school-buildings in its area, has been largely responsible for grave defects in such buildings in Ireland which have been avoided under the English system.

Defects due to absence of a local authority in the large towns.

26. A fact which must strike most forcibly any English Inspector on visiting the Schools in Dublin or Belfast, is the inordinate delay which occurs, whether in superseding insanitary buildings or in coping with the need for additional School-accommodation in any district of the city. I was furnished with some returns, from which it appears that the defects in the premises of the North Thomas-street School, which I have described above, were first reported to the Central Office by the Inspector in 1854: yet the School is still in use. In the Ballymacarrett district of Belfast the supply of Schools is insufficient; and it has been so for the last five years. In Dublin, the date of the first complaint by the Inspector concerning the St. Patrick's School, Tyrone-street, was 1896. Constant correspondence has taken place since; but the state of things, after seven years, remains unaltered. St. Audoen's School and the Fairview Infants' School in Dublin—both bad cases—were the subjects of complaint as long ago as 1894. In this investigation I limited myself to the cases that fell under my own observation, but, from inquiries that I made of the Inspectors, I gathered that my experience cannot be considered exceptional.

27. The explanation of the continued existence of such insanitary buildings in Ireland as have been superseded in England is not far to seek. In England, since the Education Act of 1870, the Central Department has been able to insist that defective School-accommodation shall be made good without undue delay by voluntary effort, or, in default of this, by the responsible local authority, which it had power to establish. The Department has thus had a means of applying pressure to an unwilling Manager or locality, and the threat of establishing a School Board has necessarily had a considerable effect in accelerating the provision of a new School. In Ireland, however, the Central Authority has been forced to wait in helpless inaction for the appearance of voluntary effort. It has had no power to require new Schools or to hasten their completion. Accidents, such as the illness of a Manager, may cause indefinite delay in dealing with unsatisfactory premises. Thus, in the case of the Fairview Infants' School, Dublin, correspondence followed the complaint of the Inspector in 1894, but no action could be taken, because the late Manager, Canon Keon, was incapacitated for business by ill-health for some years. Again, in the case, not uncommon in great cities, of the migration of working-class population from one district to another, the Central Department in Ireland has had no recognised body in the locality to whose attention it could bring deficiencies in the supply of Schools, or from whom it could require the information necessary, in order to enable it to decide as to the best method of supplying them. It has been reduced—as has been seen in the Ballymacarrett district of Belfast and in parts of Dublin—to the alternatives of allowing the existing Schools to be grossly overcrowded or of excluding children altogether from education, until some charitable Manager came forward to build a new School. Similarly, it can withdraw grants from a School for gross defects in its premises, but no organized machinery exists for replacing that School by a better within any reasonable period of time.

28. Further, the absence of a local authority in the large towns involves upon occasion a waste of money which is not incurred in England. It is not to be supposed that individual Managers can either obtain the information or devote the time required to keep a careful watch upon the growth of population in the many districts of a great city. It is not until the subject

is forced upon their attention by the overcrowding of the surrounding Schools that they prepare to take action. Yet by that time the best sites for new Schools—which a responsible local authority might have been able to forestall—have been taken up; the price of land has certainly risen; and accordingly the individual Manager has both to pay more and to be content with an unsuitable article. The inquiries that I made of the Inspectors and Managers showed that the unsatisfactory sites and absence of proper playground in some of the Dublin and Belfast Schools are to be ascribed to this cause. Nor again, can a private person with limited funds at his disposal be reasonably expected to look so far ahead as to build a School in a growing district with a direct view to its later enlargement, and thus to save the expense in future of a second School on a separate site. Yet the experience of the School Boards in the large towns of England has shown conclusively that this procedure, though demanding a higher initial outlay, is one of the surest forms of economy.

29. I am aware that the question of the constitution of a local authority analogous to the School Board or Borough Council in England cannot be decided upon educational grounds alone; but it would be idle for me to disguise my conviction that until such a body is established in the large towns of Ireland, no satisfactory solution of the defects which I have described in the preceding paragraphs can be found.

Country Schools.

30. The reasons which have led to the inferiority of the Irish School-buildings to the English in large towns do not apply with at all equal force to those situated in rural districts, which in Ireland form the great majority. The complicated problems connected with the School-supply of great cities, the solution of which with proper economy and despatch is hindered by the absence of a local authority, do not arise in the provision of a small School for an isolated village; and the circumstances offer a much more favourable field for the unaided efforts of private individuals. Nor has the difference of cost of the country Schools in England and Ireland prejudicially affected in most cases the suitability of the premises of the Irish Schools. The chief point in which the planning of the small Irish Schools appears at first sight most defective when judged by an English standard is the provision of only seven square feet of floor-space per child, instead of ten square feet as in England. But in practice this defect has not been felt to anything like the extent which might have been supposed. My experience has been that owing to the excessive size of the Schools which Managers have been hitherto permitted to provide, the accommodation though nominally calculated at seven square feet per child, is frequently so far above the attendance as to allow at least ten square feet. During my visits I came across cases where in a School-room built for 80 children at seven square feet, under 40 scholars were present; and from a report with which I was furnished, it appears that out of forty cases of new Schools built to accommodate 80 children, as many as twenty-six had an average daily attendance of 40 children or less; while in nine of these cases the average number of children on the rolls of the Schools was under 50.*

Excess of
accommodation
over attendance.

* Cf., as to the ample size of Schools, the observations of the Inspectors on pp. 5, 116, and 118 of the Appendix to the Report of the Commissioners for 1901.

31. The frequency of such cases as these in Ireland has an important bearing on the question of revising the Standard Plans on which Irish Schools are built. For the sake of the health of teacher and scholars, the allowance of seven square feet of floor-space per child should undoubtedly be raised to ten square feet for older children, and nine square feet for infants, i.e., children under seven years of age; but it cannot be doubted that the exercise of stricter supervision by the Commissioners over the size of the Schools to be provided. The Commissioners should make regulations under which, save in very exceptional circumstances to be specified in the Regulations, the number of pupils for which accommodation should be provided in a proposed School-house should be fixed within the limits of the average number in daily attendance and the average number on the rolls. In view of the irregularity of attendance in Ireland, there can be no doubt that to build for 85 or even 80 per cent. of the average number on the rolls would provide ample accommodation; and the promulgation of Regulations of the kind described should, in my opinion, be a condition precedent to the sanction of more expensive plans for School-buildings in Ireland.

32. If, however, in future the majority of small Irish Schools, viz., those provided for sixty children or under, are so planned as to allow ten square feet of floor-space per scholar, there will be little or no fault to find with the existing plans as judged by an English standard. The points in which the country Schools of Ireland would then compare unfavourably with the English would be limited to those already mentioned—(i.) the unsuitability of the buildings in a large number of cases; (ii.) the failure to keep the Schools in good repair, together with the inadequate heating and want of cleanliness. I now proceed to consider the causes which, so far as I can judge, are responsible for these defects and which may be summarised as poverty, lack of proper organisation of State and local aid, and absence of local interest in the Schools.

(i.)—I have already spoken at length on the delay in replacing or altering unsuitable buildings in the towns, and the case is, unfortunately, the same in the rural districts. I may limit myself to two examples falling under my own observation, and drawn from Schools which I have described above. The return furnished by the Resident Commissioner speaks for itself.

School.	Date of first complaint by Inspector.	Action taken by Commissioners.
Kilmergan, . . .	1890, . . .	Manager's attention called to condition of premises. He says he will build a new School, 1890; do., 1894; died, 1895. Present Manager asked in 1900 what he proposes to do.
Keelogs, . . .	1894, . . .	Manager called on to replace this School by a new one. He has now applied for a grant, and case is proceeding.

It is only necessary to add that these buildings were still unaltered at the time of my visit in the present year.

Poverty.

33. The cause of the retention in Ireland of many buildings of a type which has been superseded in England is undoubtedly the extreme poverty of a number of Irish rural districts when compared with those of England. It is true that some of the Schools in question are very small, with only twenty to thirty scholars in attendance, and if in all cases where a School is to provide for a number not exceeding thirty, the expedient already sanctioned in some instances of construction according to a special plan cheaper than the Standard Plans were made compulsory, the necessary sum might be more easily raised. In a few cases also the unsuitability arises from the absence of play-ground and cloak-rooms, which in a remote country School can well be waived; but the examples which I saw left no doubt that the great majority—at least 200—of the Schools in such districts are insanitary and unfit for use, chiefly in consequence of the impossibility of securing any proper ventilation or light.

Lack of organisation.

34. There are, however, circumstances which, in my opinion, render the problem of School-provision and maintenance in poor districts more difficult in Ireland than in England. In England, as is well known, no direct grants towards either the building or structural improvement of School-premises have been made by the State since 1862. In districts supplied by a voluntary School, the expenditure for these purposes came entirely from private sources; in districts served by Board Schools, from the rates. In its grants for the maintenance of the Schools, however, during recent years, the State has paid increasing regard to the comparative wealth or poverty of a district. This principle was explicitly recognised in Section 97 of the Education Act of 1870, and in the Necessitous School Boards Act of 1897, under which special grants in aid of the rates were made by the Department to certain poor districts—the grants varying in amount according to the rateable value of the district. The additional grant recently made under the Act of 1902 is distributed in accordance with the same principle.

In Ireland grants continue to be made by the State in aid of the provision and structural improvement of School-buildings—on condition that the buildings so erected are vested in Trustees or the Commissioners for educational purposes. The grant made represents on the average two-thirds of the estimated cost of the building or of the improvements.

35. It is, I think, worthy of consideration by the financial advisers of the Central Office whether this uniform proportion might not be abandoned in certain cases. The plea of poverty clearly varies in force very greatly in Ireland according to the locality taken; and there do not appear to be any financial considerations, which should render a rich city such as Belfast or even Dublin and Cork, less able to provide and maintain Schools whether by rates or voluntary subscriptions than towns of corresponding rateable value in England. Even if the proportion of the cost of Schools borne by the State in, *e.g.*, the six County Boroughs of Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Limerick, Londonderry, and Waterford were reduced to one-half, the money thus saved could be devoted to giving more adequate assistance to really necessitous localities.

36. In close connection with this subject is the lack in Ireland of such organised co-operation among private persons as has been instrumental in enabling the Schools in some of the poor districts of England to adapt their School-buildings to modern requirements.—Until the recent Education

Act of 1902, the great majority of rural Schools, and about half the town Schools, were supported by voluntary effort. The bulk of these Schools are connected with the Church of England; and there have existed for some years in various towns and counties Societies composed mainly of Managers of the Church Schools in the town or diocese, one of whose aims has frequently been to grant aid out of subscriptions raised over a wide area to Schools in poor parishes. In the City of Lincoln, for example, School-accommodation has been hitherto supplied by fourteen Church of England Schools, two Wesleyan Schools, one Roman Catholic School, and one School under the management of a mixed body of Churchmen, and Nonconformists. The Church Schools have been organised under a voluntary association, which, partly through the clergy of the several parishes, has collected all the subscriptions made for support of the Schools into a common fund—amounting to about £900 per annum. This fund is then distributed among the Schools according to their needs; and by this organisation the Schools in the poorer parishes are able to obtain a larger measure of assistance than the district in which they are situated could have rendered. The Association has also been able by means of its central fund to make loans and grants to Managers who have been required to build new Schools or make extensive improvements in existing ones. Help on similar lines has been granted by the Lincolnshire Diocesan Association, and by Associations in other counties to the Schools in poor rural parishes, and it may be added that the principle of paying subscriptions from a large area—comprising both rich and poor parishes—into a common fund, is about to be largely adopted in order to meet the expenses for structural improvements which, under the Act of 1902, will still fall upon the Managers of Schools not provided by the local authority. The advantages of such co-operation, in order to deal with the special difficulties which very poor parishes present, are obvious. In Ireland, so far as I could ascertain, no definite measures have hitherto been taken to remove the isolation which at present hampers such parishes. In certain districts, however, *e.g.*, Armagh, there already exist Associations of Managers; and it is clear that if through their instrumentality, and the encouragement of the Central Department, a central fund could be raised over the whole area covered by the Association, in lieu of the present plan of leaving each parish to bear its own burden, the needs of very poor districts might be more easily met by the assistance of the more prosperous localities.

(ii.)—37. In England the responsibility for making minor repairs, heating, and cleaning the Schools, has always been recognised as falling specifically upon the local Managers; and the cost has been hitherto borne by them out of the funds at their disposal. In Ireland the arrangements for defraying this necessary expenditure vary very greatly in various Schools and localities. In town Schools the cost of repairs, *e.g.*, limewashing the walls and ceiling is generally borne by the Manager out of local funds; the cost of cleaning sometimes by the Manager, sometimes by the Teacher; while the fuel is generally provided largely by subscriptions from the children, supplemented in some cases by contributions from the Teacher or Manager. In the country Schools, minor repairs seem to be more often done at the expense of the Teacher; while the arrangements for cleaning the School are commonly left to him. In some cases the Teacher pays a caretaker; but most small Schools are cleaned by the older children, with help from the Teacher. The fuel—in the form of turf—is generally provided by the children or the parents, though in a good many cases the Teacher has to make up any deficiency.

The total amount spent by the Teachers on these objects ranged in the specific cases into which I inquired, from 9s. or 10s. to about £4 per annum. I heard of cases in which the sum was higher, but of these I cannot speak from personal experience.

38. In view of the defective condition of many Irish Schools as regards minor repairs and general comfort, it has been frequently suggested that the State should make an additional grant to cover the expense of repairs, heating, and cleaning. There are, no doubt, a few districts in Ireland where extreme poverty is the principal cause or failure to keep the Schools in a proper state of repair; but the objections to such a grant as is proposed for the whole of Ireland are obvious. The State already undertakes the liability for the repairs of Schools, provided that they are vested in the Commissioners, and it is therefore open to Managers huddling Schools in poor districts to adopt this plan in order to relieve themselves of the main part of the expense of upkeep. Even if the State undertook the liability in the case of all Vested Schools, the condition of the Non-Vested Schools, some 5,000 in number, would be unaltered, and among these Schools are to be found the worst cases of disrepair. Yet it would be contrary to every principle of sound finance that the State should be at the expense of maintaining buildings which it does not own, and over the use of which it has no control. Finally, in the systems not only of England, but of Scotland, France, and Germany, the upkeep of the School, so far as regards minor repairs, heating, and cleaning has always been regarded as a specifically local charge, for the reason that such services are most expeditiously and cheaply performed by the locality; nor is it easy to see how there could be any guarantee that a State grant, if made, would be expended solely on these objects.

Absence of local interest.

39. I have mentioned this proposal, because it appears to me to indicate a common misconception of the cause of the defects now under consideration. The unsatisfactory nature of the arrangements for heating and cleaning in many Irish Schools when these arrangements are judged by the standard attained in English country Schools, stands on a different footing from the failure to provide universally such expensive buildings as are to be seen in England. The latter defect is due in many cases to poverty; the former is one of the signs of the comparative lack of local interest in Primary Education in Ireland. It will be necessary to dwell more at length in the latter part of my report upon the contrast between the Irish and English systems in this respect; but to this cause must be ascribed the fact that even in a rich city like Belfast, the small amount—some £6 a year—necessary for thoroughly cleaning the School cannot be always raised out of local funds, but has to be defrayed in some cases by the Teacher.

40. In the poorer rural districts it is only reasonable that Managers and parents alike should desire to avoid expenses, *e.g.*, the employment of a caretaker, which, in more prosperous localities and in England, can be incurred without difficulty. The cleaning of a small School-house by the children* under the supervision of the Teacher, the provision of a stock of turf and the execution of small repairs by the parents during their spare time are the obvious and proper methods to adopt under the circumstances; and I found cases where, under the influence of a zealous Manager and competent Teacher, these arrangements worked satisfactorily. But it is unfortunately impossible to see the condition of the out-offices in many Irish country Schools, and the dirt and dust in the interior, without being forced to the conclusion that even the Managers in Ireland, though frequently visiting their Schools and taking an interest in them, do not in numerous cases consider supervision of the cleanliness and sanitation of the School-building to be one of their primary duties to the same degree as Managers in England. The arrangements to be made in order to secure these objects are regarded as the concern of the Teacher; and criticism or supervision of them as devolving solely on the Government Inspector. Yet if there is one fact which the experience of every Inspector proves, it is that two or three visits a year from a Government official form but a poor substitute for the constant care and attention which effective local manage-

* It may be noted that in the rural Schools of France the cleaning is performed, as in Ireland by the scholars, under the supervision of the teacher (Vol. VII, p. 70, Special Reports on Educational Subjects issued by the Board of Education).

ment can alone supply. The neglect which makes many Irish Schools compare unfavourably with similarly circumstanced English Schools in such points as cleanliness, sanitation, and heating, will be remedied, so far as I can judge, only by continued insistence by the Central Office on the responsibility of Managers for these matters, and by the gradual increase of interest in the Schools among the parents.

EQUIPMENT.

41. Under Article 85 (a) of the English Code, a seat must be provided for every child in attendance. Under the Irish Rules, desks need only be provided for a proportion of the children. In most of the Irish Schools that I visited, rather over one-half of the children could be seated. In a few cases there were desks sufficient for three-fourths of the scholars; and, in a very few cases, for them all. This feature of the Irish system would in England be regarded as a grave defect. The difficulties attending it, however, do not appear to me, after seeing the Schools in actual operation under this condition, to be either so great or so widespread as I should have anticipated. Some of the subjects taught in a Primary School, *e.g.*, Reading, Mental Arithmetic, and Geography, can be taught as well to children standing as sitting; and for some subjects, *e.g.*, Singing and Physical Exercises, standing is the proper position. If the Time-Tables of the Primary Schools in Ireland be examined, it will be found that—speaking generally—half the School-hours are given to subjects of the kind mentioned in the previous paragraph, half to written work—including Drawing under that head. Quantity of desks.

42. It is true that in the large town Schools, as at present constructed, considerable confusion is sometimes caused by the half-hourly change of children from the desks to the floor, where three or more classes are taught in one room; and this consideration supplies a further argument for such an improvement in the premises of those Schools as will limit the number of classes in one room to two. But where two classes only are taught in one room, proper organisation requires that one class should be engaged silently in written work, while the other is receiving oral instruction from its Teacher; and there is then no difficulty in the division of the children between the desks and the floor while the change can take place without any disorder. In the small country Schools where some thirty or forty children of all ages from three to fourteen years are under one Teacher, the School usually falls into three groups—children below seven, from seven to ten, and from ten to fourteen years of age. Under any system, the Teacher must clearly give oral instruction in most subjects to each group in turn, owing to the difference in the attainments of the scholars—the only subjects in which the children can be taken together with profit being Singing and Drill, where standing is required. Thus about two-thirds of the scholars at any given time will be doing written work, and when it is remembered that the remainder in many Irish Schools will only number some eight or ten children, it is clear that there will be no difficulty in their standing in a circle round the Teacher. It should be further observed that a change of position from sitting to standing, as several of the Irish Inspectors have pointed out, is far from being a disadvantage to the health of the younger children and infants. It is indeed very doubtful whether in English Schools they are not often kept sitting far too long.

43. For these reasons the provision of desks for more than two-thirds of the children in Irish Schools does not appear to me to be an urgent reform; and there are certainly many more important objects on which the funds available for primary education can be profitably expended. The English requirement of seats for all the children might for the present be limited

to the large Schools erected hereafter on the class-room system. In those Schools, where fifty children of the same age are instructed by a single Teacher in a separate room, the separation of the class into halves involves a waste of time and energy.

Bad quality of
the desks.

44. Much more important than any increase in the quantity of the desks is an improvement in their quality. In this respect the Irish Schools compare very unfavourably with English—whether urban or rural. The desks are frequently old and worn, and though passable for the oldest children, very much too high for the younger ones; and it has to be remembered that in a country School of forty or fifty children, the majority will be under ten years of age. In five Schools only I found dual desks suitable for infants; in some cases the only provision for seating infants was a form without desk or back. Even the infants' galleries provided under the Standard Plans have hitherto had no backs. In the English town Schools, special desks for infants are almost universal, and though in the country Schools they are not so common, the proportion of Schools without them is certainly far less than in Ireland.

Books

45. In England reading and exercise books, pens, slates, and all ordinary School apparatus are in nearly all Schools provided by the Managers free of cost for the children. Since the Education Act of 1891, the English Education Department has held that the right of free education given by that Act includes a right to the free use of all School necessities; and the failure on the part of Managers to supply such necessities involves forfeiture of the grant (Articles 8 and 85 (a) of the Code). Any payment for books, &c., must be entirely voluntary on the part of parents.

In Ireland, upon the recognition of a School by the Central Department, a free grant of books and School-necessaries is made by the State; but afterwards these are purchased by the children at rates approved by the Board.

46. There can be no doubt that there are some advantages in this plan over the English. The books become the property of the children, whereas in England they are the property of the Managers. While in England the books are usually kept at the School, in Ireland they are taken home and sometimes read there; and what I found was regarded by many Teachers as an important consideration, the parents are able to see—as one Teacher said to me—"how the child is getting on," and are thus induced to take some interest in the School. I was invariably assured, even in the poorest parts of Ireland, that the parents had no objection to making these payments; and I was surprised to find—considering the poverty of some of the districts that I visited—how universally they were made. In a very few Schools I found children using the same book; and I learnt in a small number of cases that books had been given to two or three of the poorest children by the generosity of Teacher or Manager. In the Convent Schools such gifts appeared to be made more commonly than in the ordinary National Schools.

On the other hand, in consequence of the narrow means of the parents, the Reading-books are cheaper and, as a rule, not so full or good as the English books; and in the upper classes the children have only two readers each instead of three, as is usual in England.

Slates.

47. Slates, which in the large town Schools and in the upper classes of country schools in England have been in recent years largely superseded on grounds of cleanliness and health by paper, are common in Ireland. It is very rare that any proper provision is made for cleaning them.

Maps

48. The maps are, as a rule, sufficient in number, though in some cases they were very worn. The expense of new ones seems, as a rule, in the country Schools to fall upon the Teacher.

49. Apart, however, from the supply of absolute necessities for School-work in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, the equipment of the ordinary National Schools is, as a rule, most meagre, and barely attains the level reached by the poorest English Voluntary Schools. The rooms usually present a bare unattractive appearance, when compared with the rooms of the great majority of English Schools, whether urban or rural. It is rare to find them furnished with flowers or plants, or even in the town Schools of Dublin and Belfast to see any attempt made to relieve the monotony of the walls by pictures or photographs of the kind common in the large Schools in English towns of a corresponding size. In view of the large part which pictures should play in the instruction of the younger children, this deficiency is regrettable. School-museums, *i.e.*, any collection of objects to illustrate the industries of the town in which the School is situated, or in country Schools, collections of birds' eggs, fossils, &c., which in England are fairly common, though by no means universal, are almost unknown in Ireland, as they were to be found in only 6·2 per cent. of the Schools. Similarly, School-libraries—one of the most useful means of fostering a love of reading among children—exist in over 25 per cent. of the English Schools; in Ireland in 6·3 per cent. There are, it is true, Schools where an energetic Manager or Teacher has devoted special care to the task of making the appearance of the rooms bright and attractive, and has thus availed himself of the opportunity of influencing the tastes and habits of the children by setting a higher standard before them in the matter of furniture and ornamentation than their own houses can provide. The Mayo-street Infants' National School in Belfast, the Schools under the Rev. Father Mulcahy at Swords, the School at Carrick in Donegal, are among the instances which I personally met with; but there is no doubt that these are exceptional cases. Again, the Convent Schools stand in this respect, as in cleanliness and neatness, in marked contrast to the ordinary Schools. Their rooms are, as a rule, admirably furnished and ornamented, and as well equipped as the majority of large Schools in England.

Other apparatus

50. The deficiencies on which I have commented have, no doubt, been due in most of the country districts of Ireland, largely to want of funds. It would clearly be unreasonable to expect that the vast majority of Irish Schools—situated as they are in rural districts among a very poor population—could provide the comparatively expensive apparatus for teaching Brush-work to infants, or Elementary Science to older children—to take but two instances—which can be provided in the large rate-aided English Schools, or even in those village Schools not uncommon in various districts of England where the Managing Body includes, or can obtain help from, persons of considerable wealth. The Central Office has recognised this fact by allowing £12,200 per annum in order to provide equipment for instruction in Elementary Science, Kindergarten, Manual Instruction, and Drawing in Irish Schools where the money cannot be obtained locally. The questions connected with the distribution of these grants will be most conveniently reserved for the section of my report which deals with the instruction in the subjects in question; but there is no doubt that the deficiency of equipment for these subjects has hitherto formed one of the most marked contrasts between Irish and English Schools.

Causes of the deficiency of equipment.

51. Further, the attention of Irish Managers and Teachers has only recently been directed to the importance of making the Irish Schools more attractive and the equipment better than has hitherto been the case. The subjects in which the deficiency of equipment is most striking have been introduced by the Revised Programme in 1900; and it is only within the last few years that in the new Rule 93 the Commissioners "have earnestly recommended to the attention of Managers the desirability of making every National School comfortable by being properly furnished, and of providing a small library for each School, and a small museum of natural objects furnished as far as possible by the pupils themselves," or that they have urged for country Schools the provision of such additions as "garden-boxes in the windows planted with the simpler flowers in order to make the Schools

more cheerful and attractive to the children." It is as yet too early to estimate definitely the success of these appeals; and it must, in any event, take considerable time before the influence of the Inspectors in inducing adherence to these Regulations can make itself felt, or before public opinion in Ireland is as fully alive as in England to the necessity of using the Schools as a means of improving the taste of the children. Much of the failure in this respect—a failure which is seen even in the large cities—is due not to the lack of funds, but to the want of appreciation of its importance; and this can only be remedied by the slow growth of a higher standard in the matter among all classes interested in Primary Education.

STAFFING.

52. I shall confine my observations in this section to a comparison of the main principles upon which the Irish and English Teachers are graded and appointed, and of the salaries which they receive. The arrangements for the distribution of the Teachers among the individual Schools, the adequacy of their training, and the system under which practically the whole salary of an Irish Teacher is paid to him individually by the State involve considerations so closely connected with the efficiency of the instruction given in the Schools that they will be more conveniently considered under that head.

53. In 292 out of the 321 Convent Schools the Teachers are partly members of the Community conducting the School, who are not examined by the National Board, partly certificated lay assistants whose salaries are paid by the Conductors and not by the Board, partly other lay assistants than those recognised by the Board. To these Schools, therefore, the observations which follow do not apply.

Grading of Teachers.

54. Under the existing regulations the Teachers recognised in ordinary National Schools in Ireland fall into four classes, according to their qualifications.

- (i.) Certificated Teachers who have been trained in a recognised Training College for one or two years, and have passed the requisite examinations there.
- (ii.) Certificated teachers who have passed the examination qualifying them for the office of Assistant Teacher, but have never entered a College.
- (iii.) Manual Instructresses, *i.e.*, Teachers who give instruction in Kindergarten, Hand-and-Eye Training, &c., and to girls in Needlework. These Teachers, who have only been instituted since 1900, have to pass an examination of an elementary kind, and also have to prove their capacity as Teachers to the satisfaction of the Inspector.
- (iv.) Paid Monitors who, after five years satisfactory service, can pass into class (ii.) or can enter a Training College by passing the necessary examination.

55. Each of the above classes finds a close though not an exact counterpart in England. The first class corresponds to the Teachers known in England as certificated; the second to Assistant Teachers under Article 50 of the English Code. In fact, the qualifications required from the Teachers in the first class in England and Ireland agree so far that recognition as certificated by the Central Department of one country can entitle a Teacher—subject to certain provisions which are not important for the present purpose—to recognition by the Department of the other (Article 60 (c) of the English Code for 1903. Rule 173 (d) of the Commissioners' Regula-

tions). The third class answers to the Teachers recognised under Article 68 of the English Code; and the fourth to the Pupil Teachers and Probationers (Articles 33 and 35 of the English Code).

56. Amid this general similarity, however, there are important differences in the conditions governing the status of the Teachers in each country which it is desirable to point out.

57. *Head Teachers.*—The first and most important of these is the provision of the Irish Code (Rule 173 f), under which training in a recognised College has been made since April 1st, 1900, an essential condition—save under exceptional circumstances—for all new appointments to the post of Principal Teacher of a School. In England, though only certificated Teachers are, as a rule, eligible for the Headship of a School, a period of Training is not required, and recognition as certificated can be obtained by examination without training. Over 29,000 out of the 67,768 certificated Teachers in England have obtained their recognition in this manner.

58. This difference of practice is the result of the difference in the relative number of trained Teachers in England and Ireland. In Ireland the proportion of qualified adult Teachers who have also been trained has increased from 39 per cent. in 1891 to 55 per cent. in 1902. In England the percentage in 1901-2 was only 37. In Ireland there is a trained Teacher for every 76 children in average attendance, in England for every 124. The Irish Training Colleges supplied in 1901 about 340 Teachers; they have since been increased, and will henceforth be able to supply approximately 450—the total number of Principal and Assistant Teachers at present required in Ireland annually being about 550. In England it is estimated that there is a deficiency of accommodation in the Training Colleges amounting to 2,840 places, if by the end of twenty years from the present time there is to be a trained Teacher for every fifty scholars in average attendance.*

59. It will thus be seen that the means of training Teachers for Primary Schools are far more abundant in Ireland than in England; and as the State grants are made on the same scale, expenditure on such training is higher proportionately to the population in Ireland. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that on educational grounds preference is rightly given to a trained over an untrained Teacher for the Headship of a School. A period of training is now generally regarded as most desirable for all Teachers; and examinations form but a poor substitute. The position of Irish primary education in regard to the possibility of its satisfying this condition approximates more closely to the Continent than to England. In Prussia, for example, 97·5 per cent. of the Teachers (excluding Teachers of Needlework) have been trained; in France about 65 per cent.†

60. *Assistant-Teachers.*—The Irish rules governing the appointment of assistants do not discriminate in any way between the trained Teacher and the untrained ex-Monitors who have only passed the examination qualifying them for the office of Assistant Teacher. In England these ex-Monitors have always been distinguished from fully certificated Assistant Teachers by not being allowed to take charge of so large a class. They are limited to the instruction of an average of forty-five children; whereas a fully certificated assistant may take a class of sixty, on the ground of his higher qualifications. Such fully certificated assistants are commonly employed in large Schools in the towns; but are comparatively rare in country Schools.‡

61. *Monitors.*—The Irish Monitorial system, like the English Pupil-Teacher system, was designed to serve two purposes—first, to assist the Teachers in the work of teaching; second, to be the source of supply for

* General Reports of His Majesty's Inspectors on Elementary Schools and Training Colleges for 1902, p. 162.

† Page 297, vol. 9, and p. 36, vol. 7, Special Reports on Educational subjects issued by the Board of Education.

‡ In the whole of the administrative counties of England—which, of course, include many small towns—there were, in 1901-2, barely half as many certificated assistants employed as in the county boroughs.

the adult elementary Teachers of the country. In both these respects there are some striking differences between the two systems, which have a bearing on the difference in efficiency of working and expenditure.

62. Though Monitors have, of course, assisted the Teachers in their work, the Central Office in Ireland has never in its Rules explicitly regarded them as in any way a substitute for adult assistants in Schools where the average attendance of scholars was sufficient to warrant the appointment of such an assistant. Any Monitors in such Schools are appointed as additional to the qualified assistants. In England, on the contrary, the Code has allowed Pupil-Teachers in every School to be reckoned as helping to make up the required staff of the School—a Pupil-Teacher being regarded as qualified to take thirty children. It is true that some of the large School Boards have staffed their schools on the Irish principle, and have taken no account of the Pupil-Teachers; but in the Voluntary Schools and the country Schools the Pupil Teacher has commonly been regarded as taking to some extent the place of the adult assistants who would otherwise have been required by Article 73 of the Code. For example, if an English and an Irish School have respectively an average attendance of 100 scholars, and each is taught as the Irish rules demand, by a master and two adult assistants, the appointment of two Monitors or Pupil-Teachers would in all probability have involved in England the removal of one of the assistants; in Ireland the staff would have remained unchanged.

63. There can be no doubt that on educational grounds the Irish practice is in this point preferable to the English. Save in exceptional cases, Monitors, from thirteen to sixteen years of age at least, are practically valueless as Teachers; they are at once too young and too ignorant; and the latest English regulations have recognised this fact by refusing after 1905 to allow any person to begin actual teaching in an Elementary School before sixteen years of age save in rural districts, and even then under special conditions. I should not therefore recommend any assimilation of the Irish rules to the existing English practice in this matter.

64. The recognition, however, of the principle on which the Irish Department has acted has an important bearing on the question of the number of Monitors required under the Irish system. That question can be considered independently of any question as to the adequacy of the staffing in Irish Schools, since Monitors have never been allowed to replace adult assistants, as in England. The question is therefore narrowed down to this:—How many Monitors are required in order to fill adequately the vacancies in the ranks of adult Teachers? In England this question has not the financial importance for the Central Department which it possesses in Ireland, since, in England, Pupil-Teachers are paid by the local authority or Managers. In Ireland, however, where the Monitors' salaries are fixed and paid by the State, it is clear that any excess in their number means unnecessary expenditure.

65. The number of Monitors under agreement with the Treasury has been gradually reduced since 1st July, 1890. On the 31st December, 1900, there were 4,140 Monitors; on 31st December, 1901, 3,578—938 male and 2,640 female. The number of appointments now made annually does not exceed 1,000, and the number actually serving in each of the five years of the apprenticeship varied in 1901 from 896 to 508—the average number being 711 for each year.

66. The average number* of vacancies annually occurring in the ranks of the Principal and Assistant Adult Teachers may be taken as 225 among

* The exact figures for the five years 1897 to 1901 are:—

	Total.				
	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Males, ...	313	211	252	244	315
Women, ...	289	288	325	363	335

men-teachers, 310 among women. But these vacancies, it is to be noted, are not filled solely from ex-Monitors; and, in fact, the monitorial system does not form the sole source of supply for Elementary Teachers in Ireland to anything like the same degree as in England. Under the Irish rules, as under the English, any person over eighteen years of age, whether employed in an Elementary School or not, may compete for admission to a Training College; out of 186 men admitted to the Irish Training Colleges in 1901, 48 had never been employed as Teachers in any capacity under the Board, out of 247 women, 67; while the number of such external candidates for admission to the Training Colleges was at the Easter Examination, 1902, no less than 522. As the accommodation of the Training Colleges is being increased considerably, the number of external candidates admitted will doubtless increase proportionately; and at a very low estimate it may be assumed that in a few years at least 50 men and 75 women who have never been Monitors will be available each year to recruit the ranks of the adult Teachers.

67. Allowance must also be made for a proportion of Monitors failing to qualify for posts as Assistants at the end of their course. At present the percentage of such failures does not exceed 10, but allowing for a rise in the standard of examination, and for some incidental leakage, 20 per cent. may be taken as an outside limit.

68. On the basis of these facts, the approximate number of Monitors required under existing conditions may be arrived at by the following calculation:—

MALE.

Average number of Annual Vacancies for Adult Teachers,	225
Deduct places filled by Trained Teachers, not previously employed as Monitors,	59
Average number of posts for which ex-Monitors are required,	175
Allow 20 per cent. for failures, &c.,	35
Average number of Male Monitors needed annually,	210

FEMALE.

Average number of Annual Vacancies for Adult Teachers,	310
Deduct places filled by Trained Teachers, not previously employed as Monitresses,	75
Average number of posts for which ex-Monitresses are required,	235
Allow about 20 per cent. for failures, &c.,	50
Average number of Monitresses needed annually,	285

In the year 1900-1901 the number of Monitors actually admitted was 219 male, 561 female—total, 780.

69. The conclusion at which I have arrived is, that the total number of Monitors is still much in excess of the total number required*; that the number appointed annually, if reduced to 550, will still be amply sufficient to supply the necessary complement of adult Teachers; and that the reduction should in the first instance be made in the ranks of girls.

70. Under the Irish Code (Rule 222) Monitors are to be selected by the Inspectors, as a rule, from eligible pupils of the Schools in which they are to be employed. This condition does not exist in England; and the limitation of choice which it imposes, does not appear to be in the interests of efficiency. It is obvious that there may frequently be eligible candidates of marked native ability from a School where the Head Teacher should not be entrusted with the training of Monitors; while, on the other hand, a School under an excellent Teacher, which would afford an admirable training-ground, may be unable to provide a candidate. It is, of course, most desirable that Managers and Inspectors should be able to satisfy themselves as to the character of the Monitors proposed for any School; but this condition would

Selection of
Monitors.

*It should be noted that the excess of Monitors has been, and is at present, much greater than is shown by the foregoing calculations, since, besides the 700 Monitors appointed annually in ordinary schools, there are also about 180 Popul Teachers employed in the Model Schools. As, however, it is possible that this class of teachers may shortly be discontinued, I have not included them in the above estimate.

be met, if the rule simply provided that the candidate should, as a rule, be known personally by the Inspector of the district or the Manager of the School in which he is to be employed.

71. A serious deficiency in the Irish Monitorial system when contrasted with the English is the absence of any provision for shortening the term of service in the case of well-qualified candidates who have been able to continue their education at School till fifteen or sixteen years of age. * If such candidates desire to enter the service at present, they must either serve for five years as Monitors—with the absurdity of assimilating their course of studies to that designed for Monitors of thirteen years of age; or they must wait till at eighteen years of age they can compete for admission to the Training Colleges—a course which often involves an unduly long postponement of wage-earning as well as the loss to the candidates of testing by practical experience, while they are still young, their capacity and liking for the work of teaching.

In England, where the term of apprenticeship has been three years, the Code has allowed candidates passing the same examination as Monitors at the end of their first or second year of service to be apprenticed for a correspondingly reduced period, provided that at the end of their service they are in their eighteenth year (Article 40 of the Code). A rule to this effect might, with advantage, I think, be inserted in the Irish Code. It can hardly be doubted, in view of the large number of external candidates for admission to training that advantage would be taken of its provisions, and that its effect would be, as in England, to introduce a number of candidates equipped with a better education than the ordinary Monitor has had the opportunity of obtaining.

Salaries of Teachers.

72. *Head Teachers.*—The income of Principal Teachers in Ireland is derived, save in a few exceptional cases, from three sources:—(a) An Annual Capitation Grant made by the State under Schedule 1V. of the Irish Education Act, 1892. This grant in 1901 was at the rate of 5s. 1d. per scholar in average attendance at a School. In Schools with an average attendance of over sixty scholars, a certain proportion of this grant is assigned to the Assistant Teacher or Teachers; but upon an approximate calculation the average amount falling to a Principal Teacher is at least £10 per annum. (b) The grade salary, fixed and paid by the State, which constitutes the main portion of the income. Under the existing rules, introduced on April 1st, 1900, Principal Teachers are divided into three grades—the first grade having two divisions, with the rates of salary shown in the following table:—

Grade	Grade Salary.	Range by Triennial Increments of	To Maximum Income.
	£	£	£
MEN, . . . {	III., . . .	56	77
	II., . . .	87	107
	I., . . .	117	127
	I., . . .	139	175
WOMEN, . . . {	III., . . .	44	65
	II., . . .	73	89
	I., . . .	97	105
	I., . . .	114	141

*It is true that Pupil Teachers in the Model Schools serve for two years only, and it may be urged that the needs of such candidates as are referred to are thus already met. But apart from any question as to the continuance of such Pupil Teachers in future, Roman Catholics, as a rule, will not accept appointment as Pupil Teacher in a Model School on religious grounds.

In the event of failure to conduct the School satisfactorily, the triennial increment may be forfeited or the salary may be reduced.

(c.) In a very small number of cases the income is supplemented from local sources in the shape of subscriptions, endowments, or school-fees. The total amount, however, so added, forming as it does only 2·1 per cent. of the total income of the teaching staff, is so small that it may be here neglected.

In addition free residences were provided for 1,174 Teachers out of local funds.

73. In England, the salaries of Teachers have been regulated on the ordinary principles of supply and demand, without any State intervention; and for this reason alone no rigid classification of them is possible. At the same time, the English Primary Schools may for most purposes be regarded as falling into two distinct classes. On the one hand there are the Schools in London and the County Boroughs, comprising about one quarter of the total number of English Schools; on the other, the Schools in rural districts. A School in one class has commonly, though not universally, differed from a School in the other, both in size and in the source of its income. In the County Boroughs the average number of children in attendance at each School is approximately 240; in the Counties (including the rural districts and small towns) it is only 120. Nearly half of the Schools in the County Boroughs have been aided from the rates; while three-quarters of those in the rural districts have been until the Act of 1902, supported by voluntary effort.

Corresponding to these differences, there has been a marked difference in the salaries of the Teachers. The average salary of a male Head Teacher in the Voluntary Schools connected with the Church of England, which include the majority of village Schools, was in 1901-2, £129 12s. 6d.—in Board Schools, £174 11s. 11d.; of a woman Head Teacher in Church of England Schools, £83 19s. 9d.; in Board Schools, £125 9s. 1d. The same diversity is shown if we compare the average cost of the staff per scholar in average attendance in the Board Schools situated in the County Boroughs and in the Voluntary Schools situated in the Counties respectively. In the Voluntary Schools this amounted to £1 15s. 6d. per head; in the Board Schools in the towns to £2 12s. 8d.

74. In Ireland rate-aided Schools do not exist; in fact, the type of large urban School, common in England, is very infrequent. Only 160 Schools in all Ireland have an average attendance exceeding 240 children, while in England there are 8,000 such Schools; and over 7,500, or seven-eighths of the total number of Irish Schools do not reach an average attendance of 100. This difference is in itself significant of the general difference in circumstances between the Irish and English Primary Schools. The vast majority of Irish Schools are small Schools, situated in rural districts, where the general standard of wealth and comfort is very low. At least 7,000 of the English Schools, on the contrary, are large Schools situated in manufacturing or commercial centres, reaching a degree of prosperity which, save perhaps in the case of Belfast, is unknown in Ireland.

75. It is necessary to refer to these considerations, because, in the first place, they serve to explain sufficiently the fact that the *general average of Head Teachers' salaries in Ireland is lower than in England; or—to put this fact in another way—there are in England, owing to the existence there of a far greater proportion of large Schools in rich districts than are to be found in Ireland, many more posts as Head Teacher with large salaries attached to them. In Ireland the number of posts for male Head Teachers worth £150 per annum or more is about 5 per cent. of the total number of Headships; in England it is 38 per cent. The corresponding figure for women—taking posts worth £100 per annum or more—is 16 per cent. in Ireland; in England it is 36 per cent. It should be noted that this difference is not so great as the difference in the number of large and small Schools respectively in the two countries; for whereas in England Schools of over 240 children form about 23 per cent. of the total number of Schools, in Ireland they only form 2 per cent.

Further, the terms of reference to me direct me to institute a comparison between *similarly circumstanced* Schools in England and Ireland. It is clear from what has been said above that the circumstances under which the Teachers of the urban Schools in England work, are only to be paralleled in the case of a very small percentage of Irish Schools. Similarity of circumstances can only be found if the ordinary Irish School is compared with a Voluntary School in the rural districts of England; though even there the wealth and general standard of comfort are, as a rule, far above that of corresponding districts in Ireland.

76. A comparison, however, of the salaries of Irish Teachers with those of English Teachers in Schools of similar size and surroundings is rendered difficult owing to the fact that the official returns as to the salaries of Teachers do not discriminate between urban and rural districts, and that in the published Irish returns account is taken only of the grade salary to the exclusion of the Capitation Grant.† Further, the salary of the Irish Head Teacher does not vary so directly with the size of his School as that of the English Head Teacher. The calculations which follow can therefore be in some cases only approximate; but they are, I believe, sufficiently accurate to base certain conclusions upon them.

77. By the kindness of the officers of the Lindsey County Education Committee I have been furnished with the following return of the average salaries paid to the Teachers during 1901 in the Voluntary Schools of that division of the County of Lincolnshire, which, in some ways, presents as near a parallel as can be obtained to Irish conditions. It contains a population of 206,528, and its area is 967,689 acres, being thus rather smaller though more thickly populated than County Tipperary. It is almost exclusively agricultural, and though, owing to the greater size of the villages, the Schools

* In 1901-2 the average income of Principal Teachers in England and Ireland was:—

	Men.	Women.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Ireland, ...	99 9 3	87 15 10
England	147 10 2	97 3 5

† A considerable number of English Teachers in rural districts, like Irish Teachers, are provided with residences either wholly or partly from local funds; but exact statistics are, unfortunately, unobtainable. I have, therefore, neglected this source of emolument in my calculations.

are generally somewhat larger in size than in a corresponding Irish district, they are still sufficiently small to make comparison possible. 264 out of the 321 Schools are Voluntary Schools; so that the following returns are based on the salaries paid in the great majority of Schools:—

	Schools with an average attendance of 25 scholars or under.	Schools with an average attendance of 24 to 100 scholars.	Schools with an average attendance of 100 scholars or over.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Men, ...	85 16 0	104 13 0	141 0 0
Women, ...	70 2 0	75 15 0	85 10 0

It is to be observed that the average cost of Teachers per scholar in average attendance in the Lindsey Voluntary Schools, from which the return has been taken, is higher than in the majority of English counties, being £1 16s. 11d. as against the general average of £1 15s. 6d. I have also endeavoured to check the figures given by returns obtained privately from about eighty country Schools in different districts. The approximate average salary in those cases was:—

	Schools with an average attendance of 25 scholars or under.	Schools with average attendance of 24 to 100 scholars.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Men, ...	80 5 0	105 0 0
Women, ...	72 4 6	81 10 0

The above facts seem to leave little room for doubt that the return for Lindsey represents with very fair accuracy the average rates of salary hitherto paid in rural districts. It should be added that only actual money payments have been taken into consideration, the value of the free residences provided in a fair number of cases being neglected.

78. In Ireland the salaries of Head Teachers do not vary so directly with the size of their Schools as in England, since account is also taken of length of service and other qualifications. It is, however, important to observe that under the rules in force down to 1900, by which a large part of the Teacher's income was derived from the fees paid on the success of each individual scholar at an examination, the salaries tended to so vary; and in order to secure the interests of the existing Teachers, the new grades were made to correspond, as far as possible, with the rates of salary previously obtained. For the purposes of a comparison merely of *average* salaries in various classes of Schools, it may be fairly assumed that, on the whole, the tendency is for the Teacher of a higher grade to be in charge of a larger School.

79. As has been stated, the proposed number of men Teachers in both divisions of the first grade is 800, while the number of possible posts in Schools with an average attendance exceeding 100 children is not more than 400. If these posts tend to be filled as a rule by a First Grade Teacher, the average grade salary will be approximately £135, while the Capitation Grant must be at least £15—the total average salary being £150 per annum.

80. The maximum number of possible posts for men Teachers in Schools with an average attendance of 50 to 100 scholars is about 2,000; while there are 2,500 Teachers in the Second Grade. The average salary for such Schools (including a Capitation Grant of 5s. per head on fifty-five children) would be £110 15s. (£97 average grade salary, together with £13 15s. Capitation Grant). On the same principle the average salary for Schools

with an average attendance of 20 to 50 children may be taken as £75 5s., viz.—£66 10s. average grade salary, together with £8 15s. Capitation Grant on 35 children.

81. A calculation on similar principles with regard to the women Head Teachers gives the following results:—

Schools with average attendance of 20 to 50 scholars.	Schools with average attendance of 50 to 100 scholars.	Schools with average attendance of 100 scholars or more.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
63 5 0	94 15 0	116 0 0

82. This approximate calculation,* when the results are compared with the average salaries paid in Lindsey, appears to me to point to the following conclusions:—(i.) That in Schools with an average attendance under 50 scholars, Irish Teachers tend to be paid at a lower rate than English Teachers in similarly circumstanced Schools. This is especially the case with men Teachers. (ii.) That in country Schools with an attendance of 50 scholars, or more, the salaries of men Teachers in Ireland tend—speaking generally—to be on a level with those hitherto paid to men Teachers in English country Schools, while the salaries of women Teachers in Ireland tend to be distinctly higher than in England.

83. The correctness of these general conclusions is explained and confirmed by a further analysis of the conditions which will prevail under the existing system. There are over 2,000 Schools in Ireland with an average attendance of less than 30 scholars. In these Schools the Teachers under the Rules must be in the third Grade; and nearly one thousand of them are men. Their average salary will not exceed £73 15s.; and it is the existence of a large number of men Teachers in the small Schools which chiefly explains the first conclusion stated in the preceding paragraph. In England Schools containing less than 30 children are in themselves rare, and are very rarely taken by a man.

84. A Teacher, in order to be qualified for the Second Grade, must be in charge of a School with an average attendance of 30 scholars at least. There are about 3,230 Schools which have an average attendance of 30 to 50 scholars; while there are about 3,240 Schools with an average attendance exceeding 50 scholars. As the total number of Teachers, men and women, in the first two grades is to be 6,020, it is clear that in 2,780 of the 3,230 Schools of 30 to 50 scholars, the Teacher must belong at least to the Second Grade. If a man, he will be paid at the lowest estimate £94 10s., rising by triennial increments of £10 to £114 10s.; if a woman, £80 10s., rising by triennial increments of £8 to £96 10s. Thus, in nearly seven-eighths of the Schools with an average attendance of only 30 to 50 pupils, Teachers, whether men or women, will be paid better salaries than they would receive, save in most exceptional circumstances, in Schools of similar size and circumstances in England.† In fact, the women Teachers will be paid salaries equal to those generally paid in England to the Teachers of country Schools of twice the size.

*It must, of course, be borne in mind that the figures are approximations to the actual average salary in each class of school. The actual average would be higher since (i) there must be at least 400 men teachers in the First Grade, who will be in charge of schools with an average attendance not exceeding 100 children, and at least 500 men teachers in the Second Grade, who will be in charge of schools with an average attendance not exceeding 50 children; (ii) in determining the average salary of each Grade, I have assumed that there are no teachers drawing the maximum Grade salary for more than three years, or, in other words, that the average service of a teacher does not exceed twelve years. As a matter of fact, the average service of a teacher is nearly twenty years. What the calculations represent is the lowest possible average payment to each class of schools, consistently with the proposed numbers in each Grade, and on the assumption that the Grade of the teachers varies on the average with the size of the school.

†The scale of salaries fixed by the Bucks County Education Committee is, in the case of schools having less than 50 scholars in average attendance:—Men, £80 to £110; women, £70 to £90—by annual increments of £2 10s.

85. Similarly, a Teacher in order to be qualified for the First Grade must be in charge of a School with an average attendance of 50 scholars or over. There are only about 600 ordinary National and Model Schools with an average attendance of 100 or over, while there are to be 1,520 Teachers in the First Grade. There must, therefore, be at least 920 out of the 3,000 Schools with an average attendance of 50 to 100 scholars where the Teachers, if men, will be paid salaries rising at the lowest estimate from £129 10s. to £139 10s.; if women, from £109 10s. to £117 10s.* Over a fourth of the Teachers in these Schools will thus be paid salaries which, in the case of men, are quite on a level with the salaries paid to English Teachers in country or even many town Schools of similar or larger size; and in the case of women are at least £15 to £20 per annum more than a woman Teacher in an English country School of seventy or eighty children could hope to obtain. Even in a large city such as Bristol, the Headmistress of a Board School of 175 children is paid only £105 per annum, and accordingly does not reach the minimum salary of a large number of Irish Headmistresses in Schools half the size.†

86. Additional light is thrown on the subject by an investigation of the question how far the salaries offered attract an adequate supply of qualified candidates, and what is the extent of the competition to enter the ranks of the profession of Teacher in the Primary School.

87. On this question the official returns furnish conclusive information. The table published by the Commissioners and reprinted in Appendix II. shows that there are annually about 220 vacancies for men and 310 for women as Principal and Assistant Teachers. The average annual excess of qualified Teachers over vacancies during the six years, 1897-1902, has been no less than 505. For these candidates no places in ordinary National Schools can be found.

88. Equally instructive as to the attractiveness of the service are the statistics as to the number of candidates either for posts as Assistant Teacher or for admission to the Training Colleges in order to qualify themselves for the post of Principal Teacher.

* These salaries may be compared with those to be paid in Buckinghamshire to Teachers in charge of Schools having an average attendance of 81 to 120 children, viz. :—Men, £100 to £130; Women, £80 to £100, by annual increments of £2 10s.

† Although the terms of my reference are limited to a comparison of Irish with English Schools, the system of grading and payment of Teachers, which has been adopted in France, affords such a direct parallel to that of Ireland, that a report on the subject would be incomplete without reference to it.

The Teachers in France are divided into six grades instead of the four adopted in Ireland. The scales of salary and percentage of Teachers in each grade are as follows :—

—	Men.	Women.	Percentage in each Grade.
	£	£	
6th Class, . . .	36	36	10
5th Class, . . .	40	40	20
4th Class, . . .	48	48	25
3rd Class, . . .	60	54	25
2nd Class, . . .	72	60	15
1st Class, . . .	80	64	5

There is, it is true, either a free residence or a lodging allowance in lieu of it in all cases; and there are also some small supplementary sources of revenue for work outside school-hours. But even allowing for this, the inferiority of payment to that under the Irish scale is manifest. Over half the Irish Teachers are in receipt of an income from the State greater than the highest salary which a French Teacher can ever obtain.

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The number of candidates for admission to Training Colleges who sat at the Easter Examination was as follows:—

Year.	No. of Male Candidates.	No. of Female Candidates.
1901, ...	538	1,280
1902, ...	483	1,215

The proportion of candidates to vacancies thus exceeds two to one in the case of the men, and nearly reaches four to one in the case of women; but an even more significant fact is disclosed by an analysis of the previous history of the candidates, as shown in the following table:—

Year.	—	Monitors at the end of their Course.	Pupil Teachers in Model Schools.	Others.
1901, ...	Men, ...	384	64	190
1902, ...	Men, ...	259	93	130
1901, ...	Women, ...	741	65	494
1902, ...	Women, ...	695	46	475

89. It appears from the above table that more than 600 persons, not previously employed as Teachers under the Board, present themselves as candidates for the service. These candidates, it is to be remembered, cannot begin to draw salaries from the Board before reaching the age of twenty; and have been willing to incur the labour and in many cases, as I learnt, expense involved in preparing for a competitive examination, and in submitting subsequently to a two years' course of training. Nor are they necessarily drawn from an unsuitable class; on the contrary, they formed 15 per cent. of the men and 27 per cent. of the women who were successful in obtaining admission to training.

90. These figures appear to leave no doubt that in Ireland the supply of suitable candidates—especially women candidates—for the profession is far in excess of the demand; and this conclusion entirely accords with the result of the inquiries which I made on the subject. The Mother Superior of the St. Vincent's Convent in Cork told me that there was not the slightest difficulty in obtaining monitresses; on the contrary, for every vacancy there were ten or a dozen candidates; and I received the same information in numerous other Schools. Similarly there was a consensus of opinion that in the case of a vacancy on the staff of a School, Managers were able to fill it at once with the greatest ease, whereas in England at present it is exceedingly difficult to obtain Assistant Teachers even by repeated advertisement; and I was told that fully qualified Irish Teachers had to wait frequently a considerable time before they could obtain a post.

91. The existing state of the case is brought into striking relief by a contrast with the conditions which the Powis Commission found to prevail over thirty years ago, in 1867.* The net loss of adult certificated Teachers in 1867, i.e., the number of persons quitting the profession permanently owing to death, emigration, or other similar causes, was 8·63 per cent.; since that date the total number of certificated adult Teachers has increased by over 3,500; but the net loss in 1901 had fallen to 3·2 per cent. In 1867, out of 8,167 Teachers no less than 443 resigned to follow other pursuits or to emigrate; in 1901 only 78 out of 11,897 Teachers are returned as having left the profession for these reasons.

* See Report of Commission, Vol. I, pp 247-8.

92. It will be useful here to summarise the conclusions arrived at in the course of this section of my report as to the salaries of Head Teachers.

- I. In consequence principally of the existence in England, but not in Ireland, of a considerable number of large Schools often supported by the rates of wealthy localities, there is in England a much larger proportion than in Ireland of highly-paid posts for Primary Teachers, *i.e.*, posts carrying salaries of £150-£250 per annum for men, and £100-£200 per annum for women.
- II. About 20 per cent. of the men Teachers and 12 per cent. of the women Teachers under the existing Rules will be paid salaries less by £10 to £20 per annum than the minimum salaries received by English Teachers in country Schools, save in exceptional cases. It is difficult to compare these salaries with those of English Teachers, since the Irish Teachers in receipt of them are largely employed in very small Schools of a type rare in England, and very rarely taught by a man. I have not been able to obtain returns to show what salary would be offered in England to a male Teacher in charge of a country School with an annual average attendance of twenty to twenty-five children.
- III. In the majority of Irish Schools, *viz.*, those with an annual average attendance of 30 to 100 scholars, the salaries of Teachers on the average will, under the Rules, compare favourably with the salaries hitherto paid to English Teachers in Schools of similar size and circumstances—those of men Teachers being about on a level, while women Teachers are, in a large proportion of cases, better paid than in England.
- IV. In the few large Irish Schools, *i.e.*, Schools with an average attendance exceeding 100 children, the Teachers' salaries compare favourably with those obtained by English Teachers in Schools of corresponding size in the rural districts and small towns, but unfavourably with those paid in English rate-aided Schools of the same size in great cities.*

*It is as yet too soon to forecast with any accuracy the effect on the salaries of English Teachers of the Education Act of 1903 under which all Elementary Schools will receive the aid of the rates. It is, however, exceedingly probable that in nearly all the principal towns the salaries of Head Teachers in large Voluntary Schools which have hitherto compared unfavourably in many cases with those of the Head Teachers in large Board Schools will be considerably increased. In that case the proportion of good posts in large schools open to English Primary Teachers will be higher than is stated in the preceding paragraphs.

In the rural districts the results of the Act are still very uncertain. Some county education authorities are continuing at present the rate of payment hitherto in existence; very few have as yet published any scale of salaries applicable to all schools in their area. The following scale, to come into force after September 30th, 1903, has been published by the Buckinghamshire Education Committee. I have already called attention in the notes on pages 24 and 25 to some points in which it may be compared with the Irish scale.

This scale assumes that teachers will provide their own residences.

	Average Attendance	Head Masters of Boys' or Mixed Schools	Head Mistresses of Girls' or Infants' or Mixed Schools
		£	£
Grade I, . . .	50 or under.	80 to 110	70 to 90
Grade II, . . .	51 to 80	90 to 115	70 to 95
Grade III, . . .	81 to 120	100 to 130	80 to 100
Grade IV, . . .	121 to 180	120 to 150	90 to 110
Grade V, . . .	181 to 250	140 to 170	100 to 120
Grade VI, . . .	Over 250	160 to 200	110 to 130

As a rule not more than one Head Teacher will be recognised in schools in Grade I, II, or III, and, if allowed, the salary scale may be modified.

- (a) Certificated Teachers ("Untrained") to receive £5 per annum less than above Scale.
- (b) Teachers with three years' training or possessing the B.Sc. or B.A. degree, to receive £10 per annum more than above scale.
- (c) The increase of salary to be £2 10s. at the end of each year of completed service, and subject to favourable reports being received from the Inspectors and Managers.

- V. The supply of candidates for the service is much more abundant in Ireland than in England, and is more than sufficient at present to meet the demand. Indeed, in view of the large annual excess for some years past of qualified candidates over vacancies, it seems difficult to resist the conclusion that if the emoluments of Teachers were fixed as in England, purely by supply and demand, there would be a considerable fall in salaries.

The principles upon which Salaries are distributed.

93. In addition to a comparison of the amount of the salaries paid to Irish and English Head Teachers as a body, it is necessary to compare the principles upon which these salaries are distributed among the individual Teachers. The changes introduced in April, 1900, into the Irish system were chiefly designed to substitute a fixed salary for a salary partly based on the principle of payment by results; *i.e.*, depending upon the success of individual scholars at an examination held by the Inspector. English experience is entirely at one with the views of the Irish Department in regarding this change as a marked improvement. It was found in England that a system of payment by results—though plausible at first sight and at one time useful—tended in its working to encourage cramming and over-pressure of the scholars, and to blunt any originality on the part of Teachers; while it also produced in many cases a sense of injustice by penalising the Teacher for causes affecting the success of his scholars at an examination, *e.g.*, for poverty or irregularity of attendance, for which he could not properly be held responsible. For some years past, therefore, the English Department has exerted all its influence in the promotion of fixed salaries for Teachers; and the principle is now practically universal.

94. Although in this point the systems agree, the differences are much more striking than the resemblance. In Ireland, under the existing Rules, *all Teachers begin in the Third Grade at the lowest salary, and, as a rule, must work in that grade until they have been in receipt of its maximum salary for three years before being eligible for promotion. Promotion from one grade to another depends on (i.) training, (ii.) position in school, (iii.) ability and general attainments, (iv.) good service, (v.) seniority, (Rule 195 (g)). The size of the School, however, is also taken into consideration. Only Teachers of Schools where the annual average attendance reaches thirty scholars are eligible for promotion to the Second Grade; where it reaches fifty, to the second division of the First Grade; where it reaches seventy, to the first division of the First Grade. The percentage of Teachers in each grade, as at present fixed by the Central Office, is, of course below the number of Schools the size of which is sufficient to qualify a Teacher for that grade. Thus, out of the Teachers of approximately 1,550 Schools with an average attendance of seventy or over, 550 will be in the first division of the First Grade. The selection of these Teachers must, of course, be made by the Central Office acting through its Inspectors.

95. In England, as I have already intimated, the salary of a Head Teacher varies with the size and situation of his School. He does not begin at any fixed minimum; if he is fortunate enough to obtain charge at an early age of a large urban Board School, he will draw a high initial salary; while if he can only obtain an appointment in a small rural School, his salary will be comparatively low. If a Teacher desires promotion to a better paid post, he must, as a rule, seek to obtain a School larger than that in which he is serving at the time.

Again, the Central Office in England has no direct control over or voice in the promotion of Teachers, which devolves entirely upon the local

* This statement, of course, does not apply to Teachers in the service before April, 1900. The grade of each Teachers under the New Rules—subject to certain conditions—corresponds with the salaries obtained previously to that date.

authorities. The Inspectors are at times consulted privately by local Managers; but they have no power to recommend authoritatively any candidate.

96. The Irish system appears to me to compare unfavourably in its bearing on efficiency and expenditure with the English in the following respects.

97. In the first place, it imposes upon the Irish Central Authority, and in particular on the Irish Inspectors, a responsibility which in England the Central Authority has always avoided, viz., the selection of individual Teachers for promotion. The present position of Inspectors, whether in England or Ireland, is for several reasons hardly compatible with the performance of such a delicate and invidious task.

Unless the number of Government Inspectors is greatly increased, they must always have districts extending over a wide area and comprising a considerable number of Schools in them; an Inspector cannot, therefore, hope to visit any individual School more than twice or three times in a year. Even then the time at his disposal cannot be wholly given to an examination of the teaching, since he has also to inspect the premises and apparatus, to confer with Managers, and to satisfy himself that the general conditions other than efficiency of teaching on which the State grant is paid, are duly satisfied. His relations, therefore, to the Teachers in his district are necessarily very different from those of the Head of a Department to the subordinates in his office, and of the Head Master of a School to his assistants, or even of a local Manager to the Teachers he employs. In those cases the person on whose decision promotion depends, is in constant touch with candidates for it; he has daily opportunities of seeing and supervising their work, and forming a complete estimate of their relative character and abilities. A Government Inspector, however, who only sees a Teacher for a short time on two or three days in a year, will be able to form a general judgment on the capacity of a Teacher; but he cannot hope to acquire the full knowledge and evidence which would be necessary in order to enable him to compare unhesitatingly the respective merits of several candidates, all more or less suitable, and to justify his selection if it is challenged. Partly for this reason the local authorities in England who have a large number of Teachers in their employment, have, as a rule, employed Inspectors of their own, who, owing to the small size of their district, are able to keep in very much closer touch with each School than is possible to a Government Inspector.

Nor does the fact that in France the Inspectors have a similar power in the promotion of Teachers afford any argument in favour of the system. In France the atmosphere of respect for Government ordinance, fostered as it is by the traditions of military service, is conducive to a much more unquestioning acceptance of the verdict of a Government official than can be obtained in Ireland or England. It is not to be expected that a Teacher who sees his colleague in charge of a School of equal or smaller size promoted, while he is left in his existing grade, will not use every means in his power to put himself into an equally favourable position. There can, I think, be little doubt that appeals to the Central Office, or to individual Commissioners, against the judgment of Inspectors will be common; and in order to avoid the difficulties thus created, there will naturally be constant pressure put upon the Commissioners by Managers and Teachers to increase the number of Teachers in each of the higher grades so as to make it coincide more nearly with the number qualified by the size of their School for promotion to that grade. The enormous increase of expense to the State—if this pressure, which it will be difficult to resist, is yielded to—is obvious.

98. Further, the Irish system is neither so just to the Teachers nor so likely to secure a supply of highly-efficient candidates, or to ensure a satisfactory distribution of them among the Schools as the principles of the English system. All Teachers in Ireland

begin at the lowest grade of salary, whatever the size of their School; and the change from charge of a small to that of a large School, or from the post of Assistant to that of Principal Teacher does not necessarily bring with it any increase in pay. In this most important point the analogy, complete in many respects, between the system under which the Irish Teachers are organised and the Civil Service breaks down. All the occupants of one grade of the Civil Service are doing work approximately equal in difficulty and responsibility; but this will not be the case with the occupants of any one grade of Teachers. It is undeniable that though the conduct of a small and large School may be in one sense equally arduous, the Headship of a large School of 100 to 150 children not merely affects by its success or failure a greater number of scholars, but also involves the possession of organising ability, of tact and firmness in dealing with subordinates and of similar qualities which are not required in a small School of 35 children.

It is inevitable that Teachers promoted from the post of Assistant to that of Head Teacher of a fair-sized School, or from a small to a large School, should feel that they should receive increased remuneration. Practically all the complaints that I heard from individual Teachers, when analysed, proved to be based on this feeling, which has also been expressed by the Association of Armagh Managers and Teachers. Under the English system this grievance does not arise.

99. It is also unquestionable that a system which begins with a low initial salary, even though there is the certainty of rising after some years to a high one, has less tendency to attract young Teachers—especially young men—of distinct ability, than a system such as the English, under which there is some chance of obtaining a fairly high salary early in life. Whether the initial salaries in Ireland are still high enough to prove attractive to such Teachers is a question which further experience probably could alone decide. My inquiries left no doubt that the openings for boys and girls of the class from which the primary Teachers are mainly drawn, in other businesses or in trades, are very much more limited in Ireland than England; but how far this comparative absence of competing employments extends, it is difficult to say. It is, however, unnecessary to dwell on this point, since on educational grounds it is clearly desirable that the ablest Teachers—while still young and vigorous—should be encouraged to obtain charge of the largest and most important Schools. Under the Rules, however, so long as a Teacher's School reaches an average attendance of seventy, there is no explicit inducement to him to seek a larger one.

It is true that the English system has been attended by one grave disadvantage. Owing to the great number of the large town Schools, and the higher salaries offered there, it has been difficult to ensure a supply of able Teachers for the English country Schools. This danger, however, may be discounted in Ireland, where large town Schools (excluding the Convent Schools) form only 8 per cent. of the total number of the Schools. Even allowing that the best Teachers are in charge of these Schools, there should clearly still remain an ample supply of ability for the country districts.

100. It is for these reasons, I think, worthy of the consideration of the Central Office, whether, in the event of the State continuing to fix and pay the salaries of the Teachers, the principle already contained in the existing rules of giving weight to the size of a School might not be further extended with advantage. The new local authorities in England, who have as yet drawn up any scale of salaries for Head Teachers in the rural districts of their area, have adopted the plan of grading Schools by their size; and these authorities, which in the case of the County Councils have in a few instances as many as 800 Schools of all sizes under their control, occupy in many respects an analogous position to the Central Office in Ireland.

101. In illustration of the working of the principle, the following scale may be taken:—

Schools with Average Attendance of—	Men.	Women.
	£	£
20 to 30 Scholars, . . .	56 to 70	44 to 60
31 to 50 " . . .	65 to 80	55 to 70
51 to 90 " . . .	75 to 100	60 to 85
91 to 120 " . . .	85 to 110	70 to 100

The figures are, of course merely illustrative. The detailed working out of any scheme on these lines so as to keep within the limits of the present State-expenditure, and to secure the interests of the existing Teachers, would necessarily require the expert knowledge of the financial advisers of the National Board. The same effect would, of course, be produced by raising the minimum attendance which at present qualifies for promotion to a higher grade, and making all Teachers in Schools with an attendance over the minimum thus raised belong to that grade. But any scheme based explicitly on this principle would, I think, tend to be both more stable financially and more satisfactory on educational grounds than that in force at present; and it would meet the more valid objections entertained by the Teachers. The condition of promotion would be clear and definite; and the initial salary for a new post would be proportioned more closely to the responsibility involved.

The appointment and dismissal of teachers.

102. In close connection with the subject of the promotion of Teachers are the conditions governing their appointment and dismissal. In Ireland such appointment and dismissal rest primarily with the local Managers, as in England. In Ireland, however, the Central Office has also the power, under Rule 183, of dismissing a Teacher on its own motion for inefficiency or misconduct; but this power is only exercised in extreme cases.

103. I found that in Ireland Managers—though there are exceptions—generally tend to appoint persons coming from the locality; and it is indeed natural, on the one hand, that they should prefer candidates whose antecedents and character are previously well known to them. On the other hand, there are undoubtedly cases in Ireland, as in England, where local influence weighs too strongly, and an unsuitable candidate is chosen because of his connection with the district. It is, therefore, an advantage of the existing Irish system over the English that the State has a large control over the promotion of Teachers; and it is important, I think, that in any modification of that system, this advantage should not be lost. It must also be remembered that in Ireland, as a rule, the whole salary of the Teacher is paid to him direct by the State. Any penalty for inefficiency falls upon him, and does not affect the locality or Managers financially. There can be no doubt that Managers in Ireland are in many cases more reluctant than in England to dismiss an inefficient Teacher themselves, and prefer to leave this unpleasant duty to the Commissioners. In one case that I myself met, a Teacher had been almost continuously warned and fined for inefficiency since 1889; and yet it was not until 1902 that she was dismissed. In England not merely do the local Managers fix the Teacher's salary and provide part of the funds for it, but, if—as is generally the case—his salary is a fixed one, any loss of grant owing to his inefficiency has to be made good by them; and the obligation to appoint suitable candidates and to take action in the case of inefficiency is naturally felt more strongly than in Ireland.

104. In view of these facts, it does not appear unreasonable that the Central Office in Ireland—especially if the promotion of Teachers to a

larger School and increased pay is in the hands of Managers—should exert more strict control over new appointments than in England. This end could be attained by a more complete use of the power of approval of appointments already given to the Commissioners by Rule 53 (a), since it might be explicitly laid down that Teachers appointed to a new School should be regarded as on probation for the first eighteen months, and that in the event of the Inspector reporting them during that time to be unsuitable for the position, the Managers would be required to remove them. Such a provision, while securing the general control of the Central Office, would be free from the grave objections mentioned above to the actual selection of the candidates for promotion by the Inspector. To decide whether an individual Teacher is generally suitable for a post or not is obviously a far less difficult task than to decide which out of several candidates—all *prima facie* suitable—is the best.

105. It is unquestionable that the prospect of reasonable security of tenure is an important consideration in attracting a supply of efficient Teachers. In the steps taken by the State to secure this end there is but little or no difference in England and Ireland. In England all engagements of Teachers in Schools not provided by a local authority must be in writing (Article 71*). Such engagements must, under the present Code, contain the following clause:—"The Teacher shall not be required to perform or abstain from performing any duties outside the ordinary School hours or unconnected with the ordinary work of the School." In Ireland the engagement must also be in writing, but on a form provided by the Commissioners. Two of the four forms used provide for the appointment of a Referee in cases of dispute between Teachers and Managers; and this Referee may be the Commissioners. Such a provision does not exist in England, where the Board of Education, though it has at times expressed its opinion as to the justice or injustice of an adult Teacher's dismissal, has no power to arbitrate or intervene.

106. There is, therefore, no such difference in the provisions of the Central Office upon this matter, nor, so far as I could ascertain, in the general practice in the two countries as has resulted in such a marked difference of efficiency as to fall within the scope of my report. In Ireland, as in England, instances of the unjust dismissal of a Teacher, though occurring, appear to be exceptional, and I do not express an opinion on the important administrative question whether steps can and should be taken to deal with these exceptional cases, and whether in view of the State-payment of Teachers in Ireland, the Central Office there should not insist upon being consulted as to their dismissal as well as their appointment by Managers.

Assistant Teachers.

107. The annual salaries of Assistant Teachers* in Ireland are—

Men, £56 by triennial increments of £7 to £77.

Women, £44 by triennial increments of £7 to £65.

The average salary in 1901-2 was, for men, £69 10s. 5d.; women, £53 19s. 7d.

108. It has been already pointed out that in this class of Teachers are included in reality two classes with entirely different qualifications. Some of the Assistant Teachers have been trained for two years, others are ex-Monitors or ex-Pupil Teachers who have only passed the first examination for admission to a College, but have never undergone a course of training. There is, therefore, a marked difference both in the expenses which these two classes of Teachers have respectively incurred, and in the education which they have received. In England this distinction is explicitly recognised, and the rates of salary are very different. The average salary for Teachers qualified only by passing the examination for admission to a College (Article 50 of the Code) was, in the Lindsey division of Lincolnshire—

Men, £59 8s.

Women, £43 14s.

* Assistant-teachers entitled to Bourses under the Irish Education Act, 1892, may reach the following maximum rates:—Men, £86 per annum; women, £72 10s. per annum.

These salaries in England show a tendency to increase very rapidly. Advertisements at present for men Teachers usually offer salaries of £60 to £65; for women, £50 to £55. But even allowing for this, it is clear that these Irish Teachers receive a better salary than a Teacher of corresponding qualifications in England has hitherto obtained.

109. The Central Office might, I think, with advantage discriminate between the trained and untrained assistants in point of salary, and consider whether in view of the large numbers of such Teachers available, and of the salaries paid in England, it would not be reasonable in the case of future appointments to confine increments to the trained Teachers.

110. The salaries of fully certificated or trained assistants, especially men Teachers, are distinctly lower in Ireland than in England. In Ireland, as I have pointed out, they are paid at the same rate as an untrained assistant; in England the average salary in Lindsey was—

Men, £89.

Women, £84 13s.

On the other hand, the prospects of promotion to a Headship, and thus of ultimately rising to a high salary, are brighter for the Irish than the English Teacher, as the following table shows:—

		Percentage of Total body of Teachers who were	
		Principals	Assistants
Men,	Ireland, . .	81.6	18.4
	England, . .	53.9	46.1
Women,	Ireland, . .	57.7	42.3
	England, . .	43.6	56.4

This contrast is specially noteworthy in the case of the men. An Irish male Teacher frequently obtains charge of a School immediately upon leaving the Training College; whereas an English trained Teacher generally has to serve some years as an assistant before he is promoted to a Headship.

Manual Instructresses.

111. These Teachers, unless employed in very small Schools, are paid a salary of £24 per annum. The average salary of the corresponding class of Teachers in the rural districts of Lincolnshire was £30 9s. In towns they generally obtain salaries of £35 to £45 per annum.

Monitors.

112. The average salary of an Irish Monitor is—

Male, £9 16s.

Female, £9.

These salaries are distinctly lower than the English. In Lindsey the average salaries for Pupil Teachers were—

Male, £15 17s.

Female, £13 9s.

The salaries of boy Pupil Teachers in England show a constant tendency to rise since the large number of other and often better-paid occupations open to boys of thirteen to fourteen years of age in English towns renders it difficult to obtain a sufficient supply of suitable candidates. In Ireland, however, the supply of Monitors, as I have shown above, has hitherto been ample to meet all needs.

INSTRUCTION.

113. My experience in visiting Irish Schools has led me to the conclusion that such a detailed examination of the attainments of individual children in the various subjects of the curriculum in Irish and English Schools as was made under the direction of the Powis Commission in 1868, would at the present time be both unprofitable and uncertain in its results. In the first place, one chief object of the Revised Programme in 1860 was to introduce into Irish Schools various subjects, *e.g.*, Object Lessons, Physical Exercises, Singing, Drawing, &c., which have for some years past formed part of the curriculum in English Schools. These subjects are still in their infancy in

Irish primary education; there are Schools where they are not taught; and even in those Schools where they are to be found, they are often so new to both Teachers and scholars that the results attained cannot fairly be measured by a standard derived from a country where they have long been familiar. In the second place, though the Irish children impressed me, as they did English Inspectors in 1868, as brighter and more intelligent than the English, it would require a greater experience of them than my visit allowed to gauge fairly the difference produced by this superiority.

Finally, the result of my inquiry was to convince me of the existence in Ireland of certain radical defects in the general conditions under which the Schools work and in their organisation, which are bound both to impair the efficiency of any syllabus of instruction however well devised, and to render the expenditure of public money on education wasteful and unproductive. It will therefore be most convenient to point out these defects and their bearing on the instruction, and to examine into the causes which have led to the existence in Ireland of disadvantages either unknown in England or not nearly so widespread, before I proceed to consider the curriculum of Irish Schools in detail.

114. The defects to which I refer may be arranged under four heads:—

I. The multiplication of small Schools in Ireland when compared with England, and what is closely bound up with this fault, the frequent unsuitability of the staff employed in them.

The causes of this important difference will be found to lie in (a) the preference of the Irish for a strictly denominational system of education; (b) the want of such close supervision by the Commissioners over the supply and organisation of Schools as has been exercised by the Central Office in England; (c) the failure of the existing system under which the State grant for primary education in Ireland is administered, to throw any such adequate financial responsibility on the locality as forms an essential feature of the English system.

II. The deplorable lack of any local interest, except among the clergy, in primary education in Ireland, when contrasted with England. This far-reaching defect is in large measure a consequence of the want of local financial responsibility.

III. The inadequacy and faulty distribution of the staff in a large number of Irish Schools.

IV. The greater irregularity in the attendance of children at School in Ireland than in England.

I.—The Multiplication of Small Schools.

115. The population of Ireland at the Census of 1871 was 5,412,377. In 1867 the Powis Commission found in existence 6,520 National Schools; and they reported that "the existing School accommodation has been shown to be very nearly equal to the wants of the people, some districts excepted." In 1901, the population of Ireland had fallen to 4,458,775; but there were 8,692 Schools in operation—an increase of over 2,000. This increase, when analysed, proves to have been largely an increase in the smaller Schools, i.e., Schools with an annual average attendance of thirty to seventy-five children, as the following figures show:—

Schools with Annual Average Attendance of	Number in Year 1867.	Number in Year 1896.
31 to 35 Scholars, . . .	890	953
36 to 40 " . . .	697	1,014
41 to 50 " . . .	1,061	1,596
51 to 75 " . . .	1,226	2,318

116. It is true that the population of Ireland is in general scattered over rural districts of wide area; and that therefore a large number of small Schools is to be expected. But that this consideration does not in any way furnish a sufficient explanation is shown by two facts. In the first place, the number of Schools is distinctly smaller in the agricultural counties of England than in those of Ireland, though the population of the former is generally much larger. Thus, in County Down there are 515 schools; in the administrative County of Wiltshire, with a larger acreage and a population rather smaller, there are 454 Schools. In the second place, the instances of the multiplication of small Schools are to be found frequently in small towns. Thus Cookstown (3,500 inhabitants) has ten Schools; Limavady (2,800), Magherafelt (1,400), have eight Schools each.* Further, it is to be observed that the increase in the number of Schools has been continuous up to the most recent date, as will be seen from the table in Appendix III. Almost every year since 1888, when there were 8,196 Schools in operation, has seen an addition of twenty to forty Schools; and the net increase during the last ten years has amounted to 253.

117. It is inevitable that the continued multiplication of small Schools should have a most important bearing on the efficiency and economy of Irish primary education. A small School is proportionately far more expensive to maintain than a large one; while experience both in England and Ireland shows that it tends to be far less efficient. The energy of a Teacher is bound to be less effective when it is dissipated in the instruction of some thirty children of all ages and degrees of attainment than when he can concentrate his whole attention on the same number of children of about equal age and attainments, grouped as a single class of a larger School; while the children themselves, especially the older ones, suffer from the absence of the invaluable stimulus which the competition and emulation of numbers afford.

118. An examination into the forms which this increase has taken has served to throw more light than any other branch of my inquiry upon the vital difficulties of the existing system of primary education in Ireland. At the same time, it is necessary to premise that my examination could not be so complete as I should have wished, owing to the fact that no official return showing the exact character and amount of the School accommodation provided for each district or town in Ireland exists at present; and the preparation of such a return would have taken too long to be of service to me during my visit. I found, however, no difficulty in satisfying myself as to the general correctness of the analysis which I now proceed to give.

119. The main form which the increase of Schools has taken is the establishment of separate Schools (i.) for Roman Catholic and Protestant children respectively; (ii.) for the children of separate Protestant denominations; (iii.) for children of different sex and age, e.g., the provision of separate Schools for Boys and Girls instead of a single Mixed School, or of three separate Schools for girls (Senior, Junior, and Infant girls) instead of a combined Girls and Infants' School.

Forms of the multiplication of schools.

120. The percentage of Schools which are attended by both Roman Catholic and Protestant children has been steadily declining. During the last ten years it has fallen from 45.5 per cent. of the total number of Schools to 34.3 per cent., while the percentage of Schools attended solely by either Roman Catholics or Protestants has correspondingly increased from 54.5 per cent. to 65.7. Even more striking is the contrast with the state of affairs found by the Powis Commission in 1867. There were then only 3,317 Schools attended solely by one denomination; in 1901 the numbers had increased to 5,639. The number of Schools attended by both denominations has remained almost stationary, being, in 1867, 3,037, in 1901, 3,046. The percentage of all the Protestant children on the rolls in Ireland who

Separation of Roman Catholic children from Protestant.

* For these figures see Mr. Parker's Report p. 90, Appendix to Report, of Commissioners for 1901.

attend Schools under Roman Catholic Teachers is only 4.9; of Roman Catholic children attending Schools under Protestant Teachers, 1.09. It is to be observed that even where a minority of the one denomination attends the Schools of the other, the minority must often be very small. Thus, in Munster there were in 1901 only 137 Roman Catholic pupils distributed among twenty-five Protestant Schools; in Leinster only 375 Roman Catholic pupils among 58 Protestant Schools.

This tendency on the part of a Roman Catholic or Protestant minority to found a School of its own has not been confined to any one district of Ireland, as the table in Appendix IV. shows. It has been most clearly marked in Ulster, where Schools under Roman Catholic Teachers having a Protestant minority have decreased from 820 to 686, those under Protestant Teachers with a Roman Catholic minority from 827 to 771.

Increase in
Protestant
Schools.

121. The increase in the Protestant Schools has not been confined to any one denomination. During the last ten years there have been added among Non-Vested Schools alone no less than 214 Schools under the management of the Church of Ireland, 56 under Presbyterian, 30 under the management of Methodist and other denominations. These additions represent an increasing tendency on the part of the Protestant denominations to separate in their educational work; and the correctness of this view is shown by the fact that even in cases where a Protestant School of one denomination is available for the whole of the Protestant children in the locality, a School of another denomination is to be found. Thus, in Donegal, at the small village of Ardara, I found a School under Methodist management having about fourteen children in annual average attendance within 100 yards of another School under the management of the Church of Ireland. Such cases of overlapping, though so far as I could learn more common among Protestant Schools, are to be found among Roman Catholic Schools. At Eskra Bridge, near Omagh, I found a small Roman Catholic School of eighteen children, within a mile of the Eskra National School, also under Roman Catholic management, and containing ample accommodation for the children at Eskra Bridge. The former School appears, indeed, to have been maintained chiefly for the benefit of the mistress, since a large proportion of the children were members of her own family.

Unnecessary
schools.

It is estimated that there must be at least eighty Schools of various sizes, which are not required even to serve the purpose of providing separate Schools for Protestant and Roman Catholic children.

Separation of
children accord-
ing to sex and
age.

122. To an observer accustomed to the single village School seen in the English rural districts, nothing is more astonishing than the manner in which the children of an Irish village are often divided among small separate Schools, each under its own Head Teacher. The usual division is between boys and girls; and thus, for example, at Rosses Point in Sligo, where there is a total average attendance for the year of sixty-one children, there are two Schools held in adjoining rooms of the same building, one for boys under a Head Master, with an average attendance of thirty-five children, the other for girls, under a Head Mistress, with an average attendance of twenty-six. This is but one of the many similar instances which even a short visit to Ireland furnished. The division, however, extends at times even further. The older girls are separated from the younger girls, the younger girls from the infants, the male infants from female infants. The result may be best illustrated by such a case as that of the Schools in Swords, a small country town near Dublin. The Roman Catholic children are divided into no less than five Schools; male, male infants, female infants, female preparatory and female. The boys and male infants are in one building; the girls and female infants in another, in three adjoining rooms under the same roof. In England the girls and female infants would certainly have been organised as a single School under one Head Mistress; as it is they form three separate Schools, with an annual average attendance respectively of sixty-eight senior girls, fifty junior girls, forty-six girl infants.

123. The gross extravagance from a financial point of view of such organisation of the Schools as is typified in these two instances is almost too obvious to need comment. In hundreds* of cases in Ireland two or even three Head Teachers are being employed and paid at the ordinary rates for Head Teachers, where in England only one Teacher would have been employed and paid in that capacity. Thus, in England a School having, like the Swords Female Schools, an average attendance of 118 girls and 46 infants, would have been staffed by a Head Teacher and three assistants, under Article 50 of the Code, and the annual cost may be estimated as follows, the estimate both of staffing and payment being purposely made a liberal one for an English country School:—

Financial disadvantage.

Head Teacher,	£110
Three Assistants at £55 each,	165
Annual cost in England,	£275

In Ireland the School staff is constituted and paid as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Girls' School, Head Teacher,	94	0	0
Assistant,	62	10	0
Preparatory Girls' School, Head Teacher,	105	10	0
Infant Girls' School, Head Teacher,	62	10	0
Annual cost in Ireland,	£322	10	0

A further instance may be taken from the Queenstown Girls' and Infants' Schools. The annual average attendance of the girls' School is thirty-two, of the infants, forty-six, and the organisation and cost of the staff is as follows:—

Girls' School, Head Teacher,	£103
Infants' School, Head Teacher,	81
Annual cost in Ireland,	£184

In England the infants would have been organised as a class of the Girls' School, and the annual cost may be taken as:—

Head Teacher,	£90
Assistant,	£55
Annual cost in England,	£145

Illustrations of this kind might be multiplied; but those given will serve to show the waste of public money which is produced by the sub-division of what should be a single School into two or more departments.

124. This sub-division is also most objectionable on educational grounds. In a mixed School of (say) sixty children, taught by two Teachers, one Teacher can devote his undivided time to the instruction of the older children, the other to the younger; but when the School is split up into two separate departments of thirty boys and thirty girls, each Teacher has to take both older and younger, with the natural result of interrupting the continuity and impairing the efficiency of his work.

Educational disadvantage.

125. The most disastrous consequence of the sub-division is its effect on the instruction of the boys from three to seven years of age, who are separated from the girls of corresponding age, and placed in the boys' School under the master. If there is any point of agreement among all interested in education it is that a man both by temperament and training is unfitted to teach infants, and that the charge of them should be entrusted to women. Yet the prevailing organisation in a large number of Schools in Ireland exhibits an absolute disregard of this elementary consideration; and the consequence I found to be that in nearly all the small boys' Schools that I visited the instruction of the infants was unsuitable and ineffective. They were frequently neglected altogether, while the master taught the older scholars; nor can it be reasonably expected that a man should possess the patience or sympathy with very young children which are natural to even an unskilled woman Teacher, and which are the indispensable prerequisites for any successful teaching of infants.

* A return obtained for me by the kindness of the Resident Commissioner which was not, however, complete at the time of this Report, showed nearly 300 such cases.

126. Not less weighty are the objections to the sub-division of a small School confined to one sex into separate departments for older and younger children and infants, the arrangement of which the Swords Girls' Schools furnished an example.

With three Head Teachers equal in authority, each directing separately the instruction of a section of the children, the curriculum for the younger children cannot dovetail into that for the older with the same precision as if the School as a whole were under the control of a single mind. Overlapping is common; I found, for example, at Swords, that there were children in the Infants' School doing the same work as some in the Junior School; yet, owing to the lack of co-ordination, the infants, upon promotion, often did the same work over again. Again, promotion of the children from a junior to a senior School tends, in the absence of any single control over the whole institution, to be regulated not so much by the fitness of the children for it as by the effect which their transference will have upon the staff of the School or salary of the Teacher. At Malahide, for example, where the girls and infants form small separate Schools, I found children were retained in the Infants' School till over eight years of age; and upon inquiry it appeared that the infants' mistress was very naturally reluctant to promote them earlier for fear that the average attendance being only slightly over sixty might fall below that level, and so deprive her School of the help of the assistant to which it was entitled under the Rules.

General effect on
the cost of Irish
Education.

127. There can be no doubt that this multiplication of small Schools, when considered as a whole in all its forms, goes far to account for the fact that despite an approximately equal expenditure on their maintenance, the Irish National Schools exhibit a striking contrast to the English country Schools in point of furniture and equipment. The average cost of maintenance (including under that head staffing, small repairs, provision of books, and apparatus), per pupil in 1901-2 in the Schools of various agricultural English counties is shown in the following table, both voluntary and rate-aided Schools being included:—

	£	s.	d.
Norfolk, ...	2	6	7
Somerset, ...	2	8	1
Devonshire, ...	2	7	3
Dorset, ...	2	6	10

The average cost per pupil in both Voluntary and Board Schools together in the administrative counties of England (*i.e.*, excluding the County Boroughs), was £2 8s. 8d. In Ireland, for the ordinary National Schools, it was about £2 10s. 6d. It is clear that the causes of difference in efficiency must be sought not solely in the difference of the resources available in the two countries, but also in the difference in the principles upon which these funds have been distributed. In 1867 the average cost of maintenance per scholar in the 6,000 ordinary National Schools was estimated at about 16s.* per head. It is now, as I have stated, £2 10s. 6d. A large part of this additional expenditure has, doubtless, been devoted to raising the salaries of the Teachers, but a large part, instead of producing an improvement in the equipment and efficiency of the existing Schools, has necessarily been absorbed in the creation of 2,000 new ones.

Causes of the multiplication of Schools.

128. It will be apparent that the first form which the multiplication of Schools has taken in Ireland, *viz.*, the establishment of separate Schools for Roman Catholics and Protestants, stands on a different footing from the other cases dealt with, and is the outcome of social conditions to which English experience does not afford any close parallel. The trend of events has set with irresistible force against the object of the National School system in Ireland as conceived by its founders, *viz.*, "to afford combined literary and moral, and separate religious instruction, to children of all persuasions as far as possible in the same School." The facts quoted leave no room for doubt that

* Report of Powis Commission, Vol. I., p. 335.

both Roman Catholics and Protestants have preferred to establish entirely separate Schools wherever possible; and in consequence almost every district where there is a minority of any considerable size belonging to either denomination is served by two Schools.

Preference for denominational education.

The consideration of the weight to be given to this obvious preference on the part of a large mass of the population, and of the extent to which its satisfaction may justly be regarded as counterbalancing the educational and financial disadvantages inherent in the multiplication of small Schools involves questions of general policy which fall outside the province of my report.

129. An investigation, however, of the causes which have led to the multiplication of Schools not required to serve the purpose of separating Roman Catholic from Protestant children, and to the sub-division of Schools into unnecessary departments, brings out into strong relief certain most important differences between the Irish and English administration of primary education.

130. In England, under Article 80 of the Code, the Central Department has been bound to satisfy itself before making any grant to a proposed School that it is not unnecessary. In administering this provision, the Department held that a new School could not be regarded as necessary if the existing Schools, of whatever denomination, and whether Board or Voluntary Schools, already provided sufficient accommodation for the children of the district, and if such accommodation was within a reasonable distance—generally taken as one and a half to two miles—of their homes.* An exception was indeed made in the case of new Schools in a district not under a School Board. In these cases, "if the School at the date of its application for grants was recognised as a certified efficient School, and had had during the twelve months preceding such application an average attendance of not less than thirty scholars, the School was not to be deemed unnecessary." But even this provision was carefully guarded; for a School was not allowed the benefit of it "if it were available for the same population as another School receiving a special grant under Article 104 or 105 of the Code." Under these last-mentioned Articles, special grants of considerable amount are made to small Schools in places with a population not exceeding 500; and over 4,500 places received these grants. In the majority of rural parishes, therefore, under the Rules of the Department, it was impossible for more than one School in each parish to be in receipt of public grants, while in towns the strict interpretation of the words "not unnecessary," ensured that the total amount of accommodation provided in every kind of School should not be much in excess of the number of children to be accommodated.

Control of the Central Department in the matter.

131. In Ireland the control of the Central Department in this matter has not been nearly so strict as in England. In the case of Vested National Schools, indeed, Rule 67 of the Commissioners' Regulations provides that "before any grant is made for building a schoolhouse, the Commissioners must be satisfied that a necessity exists for such a School," and under Rule 68, "in rural districts if the proposed site for a School is within three statute miles by road of a Vested National School, no grant will be made, except under special circumstances." But these rules only apply to grants in aid of the erection of a Vested School. Grants in aid of the maintenance of a School, i.e., grants of salary to the Teachers, have not had down to a very recent date any similar condition attached to them; and accordingly Non-Vested Schools have been granted State aid freely. It is true that in view of public opinion the Commissioners could hardly have refused grants to a School opened to supply the needs of Protestants in a district served only by a Roman Catholic School; but it is only within the last five years that any steps have been taken to check the multiplication in the same district of Schools of the same or similar denomination. During that time the general conditions on which the State grants aid for the maintenance of a School

* The Education Act of 1903 has now enlarged this definition by directing that regard shall be had in determining the necessity of a new School to other considerations—notably the wishes of the parents. (Section 9).

have been amended, first, by the introduction of a requirement into Rule 90 (b) that the Commissioners must, as a rule, be satisfied that the proposed new School is required for the purposes of National Education; second, by the new Rule 91 (b), which provides that "when one or more National Schools under Protestant management and with Protestant Teachers is or are in operation in any place and with sufficient available accommodation for the Protestant children residing in the vicinity, the Commissioners will, in future, decline to grant School requisites and salary to any additional School under Protestant management and with Protestant Teachers within a distance of less than two miles from any such School as described above, except under special conditions to be considered by the Board, after due notice setting forth, as far as possible, the exceptional circumstances of the case."

132. The new Rules are, however, so recent that they have necessarily had but little effect. It is certain that in previous years Schools have been granted State aid by the Commissioners under circumstances which would have caused the Central Office in England to refuse it unhesitatingly. For example, in the case of the Ardara Methodist School, which I have previously described, the Inspector strongly recommended rejection of the original application for State aid in 1861; but aid was granted. In 1895 the Head Inspector again reported that the School was not required; modified aid was, however, continued. Similarly, in Waterford, the Lady Lane School, under the management of the Church of Ireland, was allowed grants in 1901, although there was ample available accommodation for Protestant children in the Model School and other National Schools under Protestant management and with Protestant Teachers. Under the English rules such action would have been impossible.

133. Nor have the Commissioners in the past, so far as I have been able to ascertain, taken steps to guard against the unnecessary sub-division of Schools and consequent multiplication of Head Teachers. No question, for example, was raised as to the grant of salary to such an unnecessary department as the Swords Junior School for Girls, on which I have already commented. No strict supervision has certainly been exercised over the proposed organisation or staff of a new School applying for aid, in order to ensure economy and efficiency. I have already commented upon the manner in which infants have been placed under the charge of masters of boys' Schools; but this is only one instance of faulty organisation in Irish Schools when compared with English. The English Department has always laid down as a condition of any grant being made to a School that girls must be satisfactorily taught needlework; but in Ireland this absolute requirement has not existed. There are no less than 780 Schools with a mixed attendance of boys and girls under a master only. In these Schools not merely are the infants unsuitably taught, but, what is even more serious, the girls are necessarily deprived of all instruction in needlework or any other domestic subject. Further, in mixed Schools, with an average attendance not exceeding thirty-five children of all ages, at least seven-tenths of the scholars are either girls or young boys. The number of boys above ten years of age would not be more than ten or eleven, and their attendance in Ireland is very irregular. In England the effect of the requirements that the infants must be suitably taught if any grant is to be made for them, and that girls must be taught needlework, has been to secure that the great majority of mixed Schools so small in size as the Schools in question are in charge of women Teachers—a course which is clearly advisable, not merely on grounds of economy, but in the educational interests of the great bulk of the scholars.* In Ireland, however, the

* In the exceptional cases, where a small English Mixed School of 20 to 35 children is in charge of a Master, there is always a female assistant. Such assistant is almost invariably a relation of the Master, and receives either no separate salary or a very low one—in some cases only £15 a year. If the practice of paying a joint salary to two related Teachers is abolished by the new Local Authorities—as is possible—there can be no doubt that these exceptions to the statement in the text will disappear.

Commissioners have confined themselves to the statement that "it is desirable that Teachers of Schools with averages from ten to nineteen pupils should be women," and this Rule (91 (c)) has only been laid down within the last five years.

134. The ultimate cause, however, of the differences in economy and efficiency between the English and Irish Primary Schools in the important point now under consideration must be sought in the difference of the principles upon which State aid to the Schools has been distributed in the two countries.

135. In England the State Grant—including the Annual and Fee Grants, which form over seven-eighths of the State expenditure on Elementary Day Schools—takes the form of a Capitation Grant at a certain rate per scholar in average attendance at a School, the present rate being for ordinary Elementary Schools, 21s. or 22s. per head for older scholars according to the efficiency of the School, 16s. or 17s. per head for infants, and 10s. per head Fee Grant on all children between three and fifteen years of age. The amount earned by the School has been handed over in a lump sum to the Managers or local authority, and to them has been left the responsibility of deciding as to its distribution among the various needs of the School, subject to the production of duly audited accounts showing that the money has been expended for the purpose of education, and to the satisfaction of the general conditions of the Code as to the proper upkeep of the premises, the sufficiency of the staff, and the general efficiency of the School.

System of administering the State Grant in England.

136. Further, the English grants have never been sufficient by themselves to maintain the School efficiently. It has always been necessary to supplement them from local sources, either by rates, endowments, voluntary subscriptions, or, very rarely, school fees. The amount of this supplement varies according to the economy practised in the management of the State Grant and the readiness and ability of the Managers or local authority to go beyond the requirements laid down as a minimum by the Code. Thus in the Schools under the School Boards in great cities such as London, Bradford, or Liverpool, which have had the rates at their disposal, and have adopted a high standard as regards equipment and staffing, the average cost of maintenance per scholar has been much higher than in the rural or Voluntary Schools; and the proportion of this cost falling on the locality has been correspondingly greater, as the following instances from the tables for 1901-2 show:—

	Average cost of Maintenance per Scholar in Average Attendance	Portion raised by Rates.
<i>Board Schools.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>
London, ...	4 1 3	2 9 5
Bradford, ...	3 13 10	1 16 7
Liverpool, ...	3 4 9	1 9 3
<i>Voluntary Schools.</i>		Portion raised by Voluntary Subscriptions.
London, ...	2 13 0	0 9 10
Bradford, ...	2 6 1	0 5 3
Liverpool, ...	2 4 1	0 3 8
<i>Board Schools in the Counties.</i>		Portion raised by Rates.
Lincoln—Parts of Lindsey, .	2 7 1	0 14 9
Norfolk, ...	2 7 2	0 16 5
W. Riding of Yorkshire, .	2 13 1	1 2 7

The average cost of maintenance per scholar in Voluntary Schools throughout England and Wales was, in 1902, £2 6s. 4d.; in Board Schools, £3 0s. 9d.; of this sum 78 per cent. was contributed by the State in the case of Voluntary Schools, 50 per cent. in the case of Board Schools.

137. It is clear that on the system described above, it is a matter of financial indifference to the State what organisation of its Schools a local authority chooses to adopt. It may prefer to distribute the children among two or three separate Schools, or to combine them in one; but as long as the total number of children in attendance remains the same, the liability of the State is not increased.

On the other hand, it is equally clear that it is the direct interest of the local Managers to make the money derived from the State go as far as possible to meet all the requirements of the School. They are aware that, assuming the School to be fully efficient, and the attendance of children as satisfactory as it can be, no increase of State Grant can be looked for; and therefore whatever they expend over and above that grant, must come from the locality.

System of
administering
State Grants in
Ireland.

138. In Ireland a system of Capitation Grants almost identical with the English system is to be found; but it is confined to the 300 Convent and Monastery Schools. To the 8,100 ordinary National Schools State aid is principally given in the shape of the direct payment of the salaries of the individual Teachers employed. Further, it is important to observe that the State Grant now provides in almost all cases the whole of the Teachers' salaries. It was indeed contemplated by Mr. Stanley when he established the National system in 1831, that no School should receive State aid which was not endowed by the locality with a sufficient fund for its maintenance. In their report of 1859, the Commissioners repeated this view, that "the salaries granted by us to the Teachers of National Schools should be considered as merely supplementary to and in aid of local support"; on the 14th December, 1867, in answer to a memorial from the Teachers for further increase of salary, the Commissioners reminded the memorialists that the incomes of Teachers since 1835 had been already increased 500 per cent., and added:—"The State does not undertake to provide the whole income of a National Teacher, as it does in the case of military and naval servants, but merely supplements his income." Even at the present time, the Rules provide that "the Commissioners must, as a rule, be satisfied that such local provision will be made to supplement the Teacher's emoluments from the Board as the Commissioners may deem necessary." It has, however, been found from the beginning impossible to enforce this rule strictly; and just as the original plan of a system of Schools common to all denominations has been insensibly modified, so has that of a system based largely on local aid. In Ireland 94·5 per cent. of the total expense of maintaining the Primary Schools, i.e., exclusive of the sums spent in their erection and structural repair, was borne in 1901 by the State, 5·5 per cent. from local sources. Only 2·1 per cent. of the Teachers' salaries was defrayed out of local subscriptions and endowments.

139. These two characteristics of the system on which the State Grants are made in Ireland, viz., the allocation of the grant to the specific purpose of the payment of the salaries of individual Teachers, and the absence of the need of any local aid for that object, have greatly facilitated the multiplication of Schools and departments. Once a School has been built in Ireland, almost the only expense necessarily falling on the local Managers is that for the upkeep of the premises. For the salaries of the staff—which in every School constitute by far the greater part of the cost of maintenance—they are not responsible in any way; nor have they the slightest incentive to economy in the organisation of the staff or School. Such economy will not, as in England, decrease the cost to be borne by them, since the State Grants are paid not to the locality, but to the Teacher; while extravagance

involves no penalty. Whereas in England the creation of every additional School for a district with a stationary child-population means a fresh charge on local funds, while the liability of the State is unaffected, in Ireland it means a fresh charge on the State, while the local liabilities remain the same, except for any small additional expenditure involved in repairing and cleaning two small Schools instead of a single large one. It is, therefore, in strict accordance with the principles of each system that while in England the Central Office has found it necessary to take steps to prevent local Managers from establishing single Schools of an inordinate size, or amalgamating separate large Schools under a single Head Teacher, in Ireland the problem which has to be faced is to prevent them from sub-dividing Schools already small.

140. This fact displays the essential weakness of the Irish system when compared with the English. In Ireland the control and organisation of the Schools have been divorced from the financial responsibility for them. The Managers in Ireland have the powers of an English body of Managers or an English local authority without its burdens and without even such strict supervision as has been exercised by the Central Office in England. The Irish Managers appoint the Teachers; but the consequences of an unsuitable appointment do not fall on them in the shape of a loss of grant, as is the case with the English Managers. They have largely had the power of deciding on the organisation of their School and the character of the staff to be employed in it—decisions vitally affecting the question whether the School is to be conducted economically and efficiently or the reverse. Yet, in considering whether the children are to be concentrated in one School or divided among two or three, whether the proportion of Principal Teachers to assistants is to be large or small, whether men or women Teachers are to be employed, the adoption of either alternative is a matter of indifference to the Managers so far as finance is concerned, under the present system. Any additional cost involved by an unsuitable and extravagant organisation is borne in Ireland exclusively by the State, whereas under a system of Capitation Grants at a fixed rate as in England, it would fall upon the persons with whom the decision had lain. It is not too much to say that the locality in Ireland is in the position of being able to run up the bill which it is the function of the State to pay.* Some of the Managers are clearly aware of this fact. One of the best—a parish priest who took a deep interest in his School—upon my asking him why he had sub-divided a small School into three Departments, replied that he wished, of course, to get as much money as he could out of the Commissioners.

141. Again, the Board of National Education in Ireland has all the well-known difficulties and disadvantages of a centralised administration without the powers which such administrations usually possess. The Commissioners on the one hand, have not, as has been shown, claimed hitherto any right of detailed supervision over the organisation and staffing of the Schools, though they have provided almost exclusively the funds for their maintenance. On the other hand, the officers of the Board are burdened with the multiplicity of detail involved in the direct payment of salaries to over 12,000 individual Teachers every quarter. Although the methods of payment are most carefully devised, the work of checking and discharging the large mass of pay-

*It is interesting to observe that in certain respects the English County and Borough Councils under the Education Act of 1902 occupy to the Managers of the Voluntary Schools in their areas a position closely analogous to that held by the Irish Central Office to the Irish Managers. The essential difference, however, is that in England financial responsibility is not divorced from administrative control. The Councils—to take the most important parallel—fix and pay the salaries of the teachers in these schools, the teachers being appointed by the Managers. The Act, however, expressly gives to the Councils the control of all secular instruction in these schools (section 5), and further contains the following provisions:—"The Managers of the school shall (as a condition of receiving aid from the Council), carry out any directions of the Local Education Authority as to the secular instruction to be given in the school, including any directions with respect to the number and educational qualifications of the teachers to be employed for such instruction." (Section 7 (1) (a).) By virtue of their powers under this Clause the Councils are enabled to check the Managers in any extravagant or unsuitable proposals which the absence of direct financial responsibility might otherwise have led them to contemplate.

ments is necessarily so complicated, as well as urgent, that for the first fortnight of each quarter, as I learnt from the Secretary, almost the whole clerical staff of the Office has to be taken from its ordinary duties in order to devote itself to this task.

142. The administration also has the rigidity inseparable from any centralised system. A Teacher has to be paid at the same rate, whether he resides in a large city such as Dublin or a remote rural district of Donegal, since, for the sake of simplification of its work, the Central Office cannot, even if it had the necessary information, adjust salaries to suit special circumstances. A small School is aided, as a rule, on the same principles and rules as a large one; a rich locality receives as much grant or more than a poor one. It is impossible for the Commissioners in Ireland, dealing with 8,000 Schools and 12,000 Teachers, to have the same elasticity in administration or the same regard to the local needs of particular Schools as an English local authority with a comparatively small number of Schools and Teachers under its charge; yet adaptation to varying conditions must often be the secret of success in primary education. In the case, for example, of a town School attended by children coming from exceptionally poor and bad homes, an English local authority can, like the London School Board, make a corresponding exception to its usual rules as to staffing, and grant a specially strong staff to cope with the difficulties. In Ireland this procedure would be eminently desirable in the case of such a School as St. Patrick's, Tyrone-street, in Dublin; but to make exceptions is hardly possible for a centralised system, bound as it is to proceed on fixed rules if it is to avoid interminable complications.

II.—*The lack of local interest in Primary Education in Ireland.*

143. To the system upon which the State grants are administered must also be ascribed at least, in part, the most vital defect in Irish education when compared with English, the lack of any local interest in the conduct of the Schools except among the clergy. Upon this matter the result of my inquiries coincided exactly with the views of the Inspectors, some of whose observations I quote below.*

144. I have already referred to some effects of this regrettable lack of local interest; but its influence could be traced in every branch of the system. Many of the differences in efficiency between the English and Irish Schools are intimately connected with it, since to it are largely due the greater difficulty experienced by Irish Managers in prosperous districts than by English in raising funds for the Schools, the greater irregularity of attendance, and the longer continuance of an unsuitable curriculum. Most of the important advances made in English Elementary Education during the last thirty years have, indeed, been due in the first instance to the special activity manifested in a few towns or country districts where the chief manufacturers and tradespeople, the landowners and clergy, have been led to devote time and interest to the work of School management. These districts have paid greater attention to the construction of suitable School buildings or to the perfecting of some new branch of instruction than has been usual in the other parts of the country. Thus, the introduction of Manual Instruction and Physical Drill into the curriculum of Primary

**Ballinasloe Circuit*.—Mr. McEWAIN.—“I cannot say there is any evidence of local interest in the welfare of the schools.”

Portlington Circuit.—Mr. HEARD.—“In this country, so far as I know, the gentry, with exception of a few who happen to be Managers, do not take the slightest interest, pecuniary or otherwise, in any school.”

Galway Circuit.—Mr. LEHANE.—“There is, I regret to state, little local interest taken by the general public in the state and efficiency of the schools. Except in rare cases, when some real or imaginary grievance needs inquiry, no member of the general body of the people seems to think that the condition or state of efficiency of the school is a matter that concerns him. He leaves the school with all that pertains to it, to be dealt with by Teacher, Manager, and Inspector.”

Ballymena Circuit.—Mr. A. B. GLOVER.—“The want of interest in the welfare of the National Schools usually displayed by persons of position other than Managers living in their neighbourhood is a matter of regret.”

Observations of the same tenor may be found in the reports of almost all the Inspectors, see pages 72-76 and 105-127 of Appendix to Commissioners' Report, 1901.

Schools has been accelerated by the action of a few of the large School Boards, and the recent attempt to devise a more suitable curriculum for country Schools was initiated by the efforts of some of the leading landowners in the West of England. The standard thus set in a few districts has gradually told in the direction of improvement on the more backward; and what was at first an exceptional experiment, has in time become the recognised minimum which all Schools should attain.

145. For this contrast between English and Irish education, the failure under the existing Irish system of State aid to devolve any financial responsibility on the locality is partly to blame. It is not merely that at present local sources provide only the smallest proportion of the funds for primary education; but the district is unaffected by the manner in which its School is conducted. Even Managers in Ireland have not the financial responsibility resting upon them of settling annually how a fixed grant from the State is to be distributed so as to ensure economy and efficiency; and they are, therefore, not forced, as English Managers are forced, to consider the requirements and needs of the School as a whole. The State Grants are allocated directly to the Teacher; any penalty for inefficiency or reward for efficiency will only affect him. There is, accordingly, a natural tendency on the part of Managers—though it is at times counteracted by public spirit—to regard the actual conduct and working of the School as exclusively the business of the Teacher and Inspector. Questions such as the arrangements to be made for cleaning the School premises, the possibility of providing any new equipment, any steps to improve the proficiency of the children which, if only as matters of finance, must be discussed by Managers in England, are left in Ireland much more frequently than in England to the Teacher alone to consider. I found, for example, that prizes given to the scholars or any new apparatus for their use had often been provided by the Teacher, and, not as in England, by the Manager. When this is the tendency of the system among School Managers, it is not surprising that the public at large takes the same view in a more accentuated form and regards primary education as altogether outside its province.

146. It is noteworthy that the 292 Convent Schools paid on the English system by a lump sum from the State, for the proper distribution of which the community conducting the Schools is primarily responsible, are at once the least expensive to the State, and among the most efficient and best-managed Schools in Ireland. The average cost of maintenance to the State per child in average attendance at these Schools was only £1 17s. 11½d., as against £2 8s. 5d. in the ordinary National Schools; yet they are far better furnished and provided with a more adequate staff than the ordinary Schools. I have already had occasion to comment on the admirable cleanliness and neatness of the premises and the excellence of the equipment; but these are only a few among many evidences of the careful supervision and management which are the indispensable conditions of the success of an Elementary School. I was impressed in every Convent School that I visited, by the knowledge and interest shown by the conductors, even when not actually teaching in the School, with regard to all the details of the School-work and organisation, and by their readiness to consider and, if possible, adopt any changes in the curriculum or organisation which the Central Office might consider would render their Schools more efficient.

147. In most districts of Ireland, as in some of England, the detailed supervision of the Schools is chiefly in the hands of the clergy, since they are often the only persons in the parish with either leisure or ability to perform the duties of local Manager. It is at the same time, however, most desirable and necessary to create a more widely-spread interest in the Irish Schools among the public, especially among persons of position and education, whether in the urban or rural districts, than has hitherto existed. In England, the fact that financial responsibility rested ultimately upon the district, has been a valuable instrument in compelling the richer and more

industrial classes to take an interest, and in many cases a share, in the working of the Primary Schools, since bad attendance, inefficiency, extravagant organisation, all mean waste of the money granted by the State; and any deficiency thus produced in the funds available for the School will fall primarily upon them, whether as subscribers or ratepayers. In Ireland, any such deficiency falls, as a rule, either upon the Teacher or the State.

148. Further, in Ireland, under the existing system, there is no opportunity for the exercise of such extended responsibility in the distribution of the funds available for education as is likely to attract persons of influence and position to the work. In England—apart from the existence of local rating authorities—there can be no doubt that the creation of such bodies as the Denominational Associations under the Voluntary Schools Act of 1897 contributed to this end. Under that Act the distribution of the additional State Grant to Voluntary Schools was entrusted, subject to supervision by the Central Office, to Associations constituted under schemes approved by the Department. Each Association dealt with the Schools belonging to its own denomination in a wide area, the Governing Body consisting chiefly of local Managers of the Schools belonging to it; but it also included persons—other than School Managers—of influence and position in the district, *e.g.*, in the case of Church of England Schools the Bishop of the Diocese and prominent laymen.

149. No incentive to any similar co-operation by the more wealthy and educated classes in the work of School management is afforded in Ireland by the State, since the existing system on which State aid is given does not require local administration of the funds available. In order to bring about a transference of financial responsibility from the State to the Managers or the locality, it would be necessary to abandon the arrangement by which the grant for maintenance of the Schools takes the form of the payment in full of the salaries of the Teachers, and to substitute for it a system analogous to that on which the Convent Schools are already paid. Owing, however, to the innumerable variations in salaries, it does not appear possible to effect such a change, so long as the Schools are treated separately for the purpose of State aid. The average cost of maintenance to the State per child is about 48s.; but if a Capitation Grant at this rate were made to the Managers of each separate School, in many cases the sum earned would be insufficient to secure the Teacher's present salary, while to raise the average grant in order to cover all such cases would clearly involve an enormous increase of expense. The average cost of maintenance would only coincide closely with the total amount paid for salaries of Teachers, if a considerable number of Schools were grouped together; and such grouping would involve the establishment of some recognised and responsible body—whether analogous to the English rating authorities or to the Denominational Associations under the Voluntary Schools Act—to which the distribution of public money to the Schools in its area could be entrusted, subject to the rules laid down by the Central Office, and upon the revenues of which the maintenance of the salaries of existing Teachers at their present rate could be made a first charge. It would also presumably be necessary for the State to fix a minimum salary for Teachers as it already does in the case of the recognised lay assistants in the Convent Schools (Rule 135 (2)), in order to secure a fair rate of pay, and also to check the possibility of the discharge of the existing Teachers in order to engage others at a lower rate.

150. To discuss whether any such considerable change in the system is feasible or advisable under existing conditions, involves questions outside the scope of my report. It is, however, obvious that until some means is found of placing upon the Managers, and through them the locality, a financial responsibility more proportionate to the powers which they at present enjoy, the Central Office must exercise a closer supervision over the details of School-organisation and staffing than is necessary in England, where local financial responsibility operates as a check upon extravagance or inefficiency.

151. It remains, therefore, for me to suggest some alterations in the existing practice and Rules of the Central Department which, though they have no bearing on the question of encouraging wider local interest in the Schools, might, I think, do something to remedy the evils attendant upon the multiplication of small Schools.

152 (i.) The Board of National Education should have prepared and published for the information of the Irish Government and the Treasury an annual Return showing the exact amount and character of School accommodation provided for each County Borough and each district, civil or ecclesiastical parish, as might be found convenient, of a County, and the amount of grant paid to each School. Such a return is published by the English Board of Education in Appendix IV. to its Annual Report; and the form therein adopted might be followed with any modifications found necessary by the Commissioners. It would thus be in somewhat the following shape:—

Name of Township or District.	Name of School or Schools in the area of Town or District.	Religious Denomination.	Accommodation Provided.	Annual Average Attendance.	Total amount of State Grant for Maintenance.

It would then be possible to ascertain without difficulty what was the supply of Schools for any particular district of Ireland, and where there was a probable excess. At present the only list annually published is a list of Schools arranged in alphabetical order according to their titles and without regard to their situation. In the event of any question arising as to the necessity of a School in any district, a special return of the Schools in that district has to be prepared on each occasion by the officers of the Board.

(ii.) In its Code and administrative regulations the Board should lay down explicit rules to the following effect:—

(a.) It should reserve to itself the right of discontinuing aid after reasonable notice (*e.g.*, after two years) to any existing Roman Catholic or Protestant School on the ground that such School is within two miles of another School of the same or similar denomination which has sufficient available accommodation for the children resident in the vicinity.

(b.) The Board may also, after due notice, require as a condition of further aid being granted that any separate departments of an existing School should be amalgamated where it considers that such amalgamation would be of advantage to the education of the district.

(c.) The Inspectors should report annually as to all Schools, whether the organisation and character of the staffing are conducive to economy and efficiency; and, if not, what changes are required. The report should deal specifically with such questions as the following:—

(i.) Whether the School would be best conducted as a Mixed School or as separate departments for boys and girls;

(ii.) Whether the infants, if any, should form a separate School or should be attached as a class to the Girls' or Mixed School;

(iii.) Whether the School, if a Mixed School, should be placed in charge of a master or mistress. The advice thus obtained would guide the Board in deciding whether and upon what conditions aid should be granted or continued in any case;

(d.) After a date to be specified by the Board in all Schools where separate departments exist for boys and girls, no child under seven years of age shall be placed in the boys' department, save under exceptional circumstances, *e.g.*, want of room in the premises occupied by girls;

(e.) In future separate Schools for boys and girls instead of a mixed School should not be sanctioned unless the annual average attendance of boys over seven years of age reaches thirty-five.

(f.) Schools in which the annual average attendance of children does not reach thirty-five should—save under exceptional circumstances—be in charge of a mistress, and, in any case, satisfactory arrangements must be made for the suitable instruction of infants and for the instruction of older girls in needlework.

153. The following observations should be added with reference to the above proposals:—

(i.) The returns recently made by the Inspectors as to unnecessary Schools will afford a basis for investigation as to the application of the suggested Rule (e). There are probably at least 80 or 100 Schools where aid should be discontinued after reasonable notice.

(ii.) It is obvious that the discontinuance of unnecessary Schools and departments must be a gradual process. Regard should, as far as possible consistently with reform, be had to the interests of the existing Teachers. In particular, advantage should be taken of vacancies due to ordinary causes, e.g., removal, retirement, death, &c., in insisting upon the amalgamation of Schools at present separate, or in substituting a female Teacher for a male. In every case due notice should be given of any proposed change by the Board, so as to give the Teacher ample time to seek another post.

(iii.) The effect of the proposed Rules (d) and (e) would be to encourage the establishment of Schools with a mixed attendance of boys and girls. In France separate Schools for boys and girls are not allowed unless the population of the School district, the Commune, reaches 500; and a rule of this character might be laid down in Ireland. It should, however, be observed that in some parts of Ireland Roman Catholic Managers object to mixed Schools as a possible danger to morality. I was not able to obtain any specific facts in support of this belief, nor does English experience in rural districts lend any colour to it. It is also apparently not shared by a large number of Roman Catholic Managers, since there are over 2,000 mixed Schools under Roman Catholic management.

The Central Office might, however, not think it advisable to insist absolutely on compliance with Rule (e) in view of this feeling. In any such case where Managers prefer a separate School for a smaller number of older boys than is stated in that Rule, the total grants for salary might be calculated as if the School had been a mixed School, and the entire sum paid to the Manager. The proportion of this sum to be assigned to the Teacher of each School should be determined by agreement between them and the Manager.

154. It is not possible to estimate at all accurately the ultimate financial effect of the proposals indicated above, since the exact number of Schools, which might, with educational advantage, be discontinued, amalgamated, or be placed under the charge of a female Teacher, can only be determined after a lengthy and careful investigation by the Inspectors of the Board, and in the light of their local knowledge and experience.

III.—*The inadequacy and faulty distribution of the Staff in certain Irish Schools.*

155. The adequate staffing of a School is obviously essential if the instruction in any curriculum, however well devised, is to be effective. In a considerable number of Irish Schools, approximately 1,400, with an average attendance

of forty to fifty-nine scholars, the staff is inadequate when compared with English country Schools of the same size. On the other hand, the Irish Schools with an average attendance exceeding sixty scholars are often staffed on a more liberal scale than similarly circumstanced Schools in England. I proceed to offer some detailed observations on each of these statements.

156. In Ireland, under Rules 103 and 206 (a), a School is held to require the services of an Assistant Teacher when the average daily attendance of children reaches sixty; in England, under Article 73 of the Code, when the average attendance exceeds fifty.

Staffing of Schools with an average attendance not reaching 60 scholars.

157. This difference of regulation is in itself noteworthy; but a short consideration of the principles upon which the staff of a School should be judged in order to decide as to its adequacy, and of the extent to which the actual practice in England and Ireland respectively conforms to these principles, will reveal even more striking differences.

158. Nothing is more clear than that the number of pupils who can be properly instructed by a single Teacher is not and cannot be rigidly fixed, but is proportioned to the variation in their age and attainments. To take a class of fifty or sixty children, all of the same age, and hence, speaking generally, at the same stage of knowledge, is a possible task for a skilful Teacher; but to instruct and control the same number of children of all ages from three to fifteen, and all degrees of knowledge and ignorance, is a task with which no skill on the part of a Teacher can enable him to cope successfully. The difficulty is aggravated in Ireland by the irregularity of the attendance. A School with an average attendance of (say) fifty-nine for the year will generally have nearly ninety children on the rolls; and in the months when attendance is at its best, there will be some seventy or more children present. Without any blame being due to the Teacher, the Irish Schools of this kind, where one Teacher has to struggle with some forty to seventy children of all ages, are in a most unsatisfactory condition, as my experience proved. While the Teacher takes the older children, the younger ones, who obviously need the most constant supervision, are neglected and unoccupied; while if he turns to the younger ones, his attention is constantly distracted by the necessity of watching and guiding the older scholars.

159. It would, I think, be generally agreed that thirty-five to forty children (if they are, as in a country School, of all ages) are certainly as many as a Teacher can properly instruct single-handed, and even then considerable skill is necessary. In England, for the following reasons, the actual staffing of the country Schools as a whole has tended to correspond with this principle.

In the first place, under Article 105 of the English Code, a special grant of £10 is made to Schools in places with a small population, provided that, among other conditions, the Head Teacher is provided with a qualified assistant, if the annual average attendance of children exceeds forty. 4,766 country Schools in England and Wales obtained this grant in 1901-2.

In the second place, under Article 98 of the English Code, the Inspector is bound to certify, in cases where the average attendance of infants does not exceed twenty, that they are suitably taught, if any grant is to be made for them. This provision, of course, applies to small country Schools; and in a School of some 40 to 50 children under only one Teacher, the condition cannot, as a rule, be satisfied, since it is impossible to devote a proper amount of time to the instruction of the younger children. In virtue of the power given by this Article, the Board has frequently been able to induce Managers to appoint an additional Teacher in such a School.

Finally, the Department has constantly impressed upon Managers that the rule allowing one Teacher to instruct a School of fifty children, indicates

only the *minimum* standard of staffing to which a School must attain in order to avoid forfeiture of the grant. The Prefatory Memorandum to the Code of 1903, states explicitly:—"The Board desire it to be clearly understood that in future a staff confined to the scale set out in Article 73 is not to be regarded as universally or even generally to justify the payment of the State subsidy. The various circumstances and requirements of each particular School will, in every case, be carefully considered, and the sufficiency and suitability of the staff thus measured and estimated will be deemed to be a condition precedent to the payment of any annual grant at all for that School."

160. The inducement offered by Article 105 and the policy of the Board in the matter have proved successful in obtaining a recognised assistant for a very large number of country Schools of thirty to fifty children. There are, it is true, such Schools, especially in very poor or backward districts, which are still without an assistant; but they do not represent the general average of the country. My colleague, Mr. Elliott, informs me that in the country districts of Gloucestershire, Wiltshire, and Somerset, of which he has charge, and in which there is a considerable number of small Schools, there are now only 5 Schools out of 135 which have no recognised Assistant Teacher in them. The annual average attendance of these 5 Schools was respectively, 19, 14, 20, 31, 26. In the wide area of Lincolnshire, which falls within my own knowledge, I find there are 91 Schools with an average attendance of scholars not exceeding 59—the number for which under Irish Rules the Head Teacher is considered sufficient. Of these Schools, all but eighteen are supplied with a recognised assistant; and of the eighteen in which the Head Teacher is alone, there are only two Schools with an average attendance exceeding thirty. The remainder are small Schools varying in size from eleven to thirty children. In Ireland there are about 1,400 Schools of forty to fifty-nine children, where the only adult Teacher is the Head Master or mistress and where the staff would therefore be considered in England either as too inadequate for a grant or as falling below the usual and proper standard. It is true that in some of these Irish Schools a Monitor is employed; but an inexperienced child of thirteen or fifteen years of age is, as a rule, unfitted to perform any but purely mechanical duties such as distributing books or watching the children. In some mixed Schools, again, of this size, a Work-mistress is employed; but her duties have hitherto been confined to instruction in needlework for three or four hours a week, so that this class of Teachers, which the Commissioners have now ceased to recruit, is of no value as a permanent help.

Staffing of Schools
with an average
attendance of 40
scholars or over.

161. In Schools with an average attendance of sixty to ninety-five scholars, one assistant is allowed by the Irish Code; when the attendance reaches ninety-five a second assistant is recognised; and an additional assistant beyond the second is granted for every forty-five scholars. Thus a School with an average attendance of 95 has two assistants, of 140 three, and so forth.

162. I have already had occasion in the section on staffing to call attention to the fact that under the existing Irish Rules absolutely no discrimination is made between a trained fully certificated assistant and an untrained ex-Monitor, despite the difference of their qualifications. Each counts for the same number of children, and Managers can employ either as they wish. In England a trained or a fully certificated assistant is qualified, according to Article 73 of the Code, to take sixty children, an uncertificated assistant, forty-five. Further, fully certificated assistants are, as a rule, employed solely in the large English Schools, i.e., Schools with an average attendance exceeding 100 at the least. It is very rare to find a trained assistant in a country School of seventy children; indeed, I am not aware of any cases except those in which the assistant in question is a relation of the Head Teacher.

163. Two consequences follow from these differences. First, a number of Irish country Schools, with an average attendance not exceeding 100, are much better staffed than such Schools have been in England. For example a country School of sixty-two children may be, under the Irish Rules, and, as I found by experience, actually is staffed by two fully certificated Teachers. In England, the assistant in such a School would be either a Teacher under Article 68 of the Code, or an ex-Pupil Teacher who had passed the examination for admission to training, but had not proceeded to a College. The employment of a trained certificated assistant in so small a School would be regarded by English Managers or an English local authority as inadmissible on the ground of expense.

Second, in the larger Irish Schools of 100 to 250 children, owing to the fact that trained or untrained Teachers are employed indifferently, the staffing of some Schools is not merely far above the minimum required by the English Code, but quite equal to the scale adopted by the most progressive English School Boards.* As an example, an Irish town School of 192 boys may be taken, the staff consisting of the Head Teacher and four assistants, of whom three had been trained. Under the scale adopted by the Bristol School Board, this staff would be considered sufficient for 225 scholars. As two-fifths of the Teachers annually leaving the Irish Training Colleges obtain posts as assistants, large Schools often have two or three such assistants on their staff, each under the Irish Rules counting only for forty-five children, whereas in England they would count for fifty at least. It must also be remembered that as I have already explained, Monitors in any year of their service in an Irish School are not reckoned as part of the staff; whereas in England, even under the large School Boards, they have generally been so reckoned in the last two years of their apprenticeship.

164. In some large Schools, on the other hand, the staffing, though it always reaches the minimum allowed under the English Code, would be considered in England deficient in quality, owing to the absence of trained assistants.

165. The chief differences between the English and Irish Rules as to staffing which affect the efficiency of the Irish Schools, may, therefore, be summed up as first, the failure to provide such adequate assistance as in England for a large number of Schools of forty to fifty-nine scholars; second, the absence in Ireland of any provision for securing a more equal distribution among the larger Schools of the trained assistants.

166. It has been frequently suggested that in order to remedy the former defect, the Irish Rules should be so amended as to allow an assistant when the average attendance of scholars reaches fifty. This measure, however, would still leave untouched some hundreds of Schools of forty to forty-nine scholars, whose condition in the absence of any adult assistant is almost if not quite as unsatisfactory as that of the Schools from fifty to fifty-nine. Further, if the existing system remained otherwise unchanged, it would accentuate still further the inequalities in the

* The scale of staffing adopted in Ireland for schools of 100 children or over may be then contrasted with the scales which the Sheffield and Bristol School Boards—to take two instances out of the large School Boards—respectively adopt subject to variation in special circumstances:—

	Sheffield.	Bristol.	Ireland.
Head Teacher counts for	40	30	50 children.
Fully Certificated Assistant counts for	60	50	45 "
Uncertificated Teacher counts for	45	45	45 "
Pupil Teacher (2nd and 3rd years of apprenticeship) counts for	30	30	NB.

distribution of trained assistants. A School with an average attendance of fifty-five pupils might, and no doubt would, at times be staffed by two trained Teachers; and it would appear to be a grave question whether, in view of the limited resources available for the many needs of Irish primary education, the Board of National Education would be at present justified in permitting the adoption of a scale of staffing entirely at the expense of the State far in advance of the most liberal scales known in England. The number of trained Teachers available for the work of assistants must in any case be diminished in future years, as the effect of the new Rule limiting Headships of Schools to them is more and more felt; and on educational grounds alone, and in order to avoid a waste of teaching power, it is most desirable that such assistants should be primarily reserved for the largest and most important Schools, where the higher intellectual attainments which they should possess as compared with untrained Teachers can be employed to most advantage. It must be remembered that the duties of an assistant in a small country School of forty to seventy children will naturally be confined almost entirely to the instruction of infants, and where the School is under a master, of the older girls in needlework. For this work a high standard of proficiency in the ordinary subjects of examination is by no means the first or only qualification. A liking for little children, patience, animation, and natural quickness of mind are much more indispensable.

167. The Board has recently instituted the class of Manual Instructresses, who, in addition to passing an elementary examination in ordinary subjects will, I understand, be trained by the organisers in Kindergarten and methods of infants' teaching; but at present such Teachers are only allowed full pay in Schools where the average attendance of girls reaches twenty (Rule 155 (b)). It would, I think, be advisable to alter the Rule so as to allow the employment of these Teachers in all Schools with an annual average attendance of 40 to 50 scholars, where an adult assistant is not at present employed.

168. Concurrently with this change, the Central Office might, with advantage, lay down rules to regulate the proportion of trained to untrained assistants in any School, and to increase the employment of the former class in the larger Schools. For example, a Rule might be made that an untrained assistant should be employed in Schools with an average attendance of sixty to seventy scholars, while in all Schools where two assistants or more were employed the following proportion might be laid down:—

	Trained.	Untrained.
Schools entitled to 2 Assistants, . .	1	1
" " 3 " " . .	1	2
" " 4 " " . .	2	2
" " 5 " " . .	3	2
" " 6 " " . .	3	3

Exceptions from this proportion should only be allowed where the Inspector reported that the circumstances of the School were such as to render it impracticable to obtain a trained Teacher.

This measure would still leave the staffing of the larger Schools on a level with that in the best Urban Board Schools of England, while it would stop the existing anomaly of one large School being staffed almost entirely by trained, another by untrained, assistants.

Staff of Convent
Schools.

169. In the Convent Schools the staff of certificated assistants has to be on the same scale as that adopted in ordinary National Schools (Rule 135 (1)); but in addition a large number of uncertificated lay-assistants are, as a rule,

employed. In consequence the staff, so far as numbers go, reaches a level not to be found in any English Primary School. The following table gives a list of the staff in the large King's Inn-street Convent School in Dublin:—

	Members of Community.	Certified Teachers.	Board School-teachers.	Adult un-certificated Teachers.	Monitresses employed by Community.	Total.
Boys' Infant Department,	1	1	4	5	3	14
Girls' " "	1	3	3	—	6	13
No. 1 School, 1st and 2nd Standard,	1	1	3	4	4	13
No. 3 " 3rd and 4th "	1	3	5	2	3	14
No. 3 " 5th and 6th "	1	10	7	2	—	20
Industrial Department,	—	1	—	1	—	3
1 Industrial Teacher,	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cookery, 1 Certified Teacher,	—	—	—	—	—	1
	5	19	22	14	16	78

Extra Teachers—1 for Violin; 1 for Elocution; 1 for Irish; Total 3.

Average number on Rolls for year ending 31st December, 1902, = 1,316.

Average Attendance for year ending 31st December, 1902, = 1,014.

There is thus—excluding Monitresses—an adult Teacher to every twenty-seven children. The uncertified Teachers, as is to be expected, vary very greatly in ability; some of them are poor, others have a natural gift for teaching, and are certainly useful members of the staff.

IV.—Irregularity of Attendance.

170. The best known of the differences between primary education in Ireland and England is to be found in the character of the attendance of children at School. Out of every 100 children on the rolls of English Schools, the average attendance was in 1902, 83·9; in Ireland it was only 65·1. In England compulsory attendance has been fully in force since the Education Act of 1876, in Ireland it was not till the Irish Education Act of 1892 that powers were given to establish School Attendance Committees in order to compel the attendance of children in their districts. On 31st December, 1901, 78 urban districts and 43 rural districts had availed themselves of the provisions of the Act; but while in the large towns of Ireland School attendance is now compulsory, it is still optional in many parts of the country.

171. A comparison, however, of the general average of attendance between Ireland and England, as a whole, is misleading, since it necessarily fails to bring out the variety and complexity of the facts. The attendance in Ireland compares both more favourably and more unfavourably with the attendance in England than the figures quoted show.

172. In the large towns, notably Belfast and Dublin, where I had the opportunity of obtaining considerable information on the subject, the state of the case, though still unsatisfactory when judged by an English standard, is far better than might have been expected without investigation. The percentage of average daily attendance to the average number on the rolls of the Belfast Schools was, in 1902, 72. For each month in that year it was as follows (it should be stated that in May, June, November, and December, attendance was affected by epidemic sickness):—

Attendance in towns.

January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
71·3	70·3	70·6	74·8	73·3	71·6	72·6	72·3	74	71·8	69

The percentage for each year since 1893 is shown in the following table:—

1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.
73·6	72·6	72·6	71·6	71·2	70·5	70·4	70·6	72

The lowest percentage for the year 1901-2 in any of the English County Boroughs was 78·6 in Blackburn, and the highest 91·2 in Leicester.

I have not been able to obtain similar figures for Dublin; but in most of the Schools that I visited the percentage for the year was over 70.

173. There can be no doubt that even this percentage does not adequately represent the regularity of attendance on the part of great numbers of the children in many Schools, since the general average is lowered by the continued absences of a small proportion of scholars. This fact—which was brought to my notice constantly in Dublin and Belfast—was summed up vividly by one Teacher, the mistress of a large Girls' School, who said to me:—"One-third of the children are almost always here; about half of the rest come fairly regularly; the remainder we hardly ever see."

Attendance in
country Schools.

174. In the country Schools I found the general average for the year distinctly lower than in the towns. The percentage of average attendance to average number on the rolls varied in most of the Schools that I visited between 55 and 60; in the country Schools of my own district it is, as a rule, over 80, though occasionally falling to 78. The most striking feature, however, in Ireland—upon which it will be necessary to comment later—is the variation of attendance in rural Schools from month to month of the year. During certain months the percentage will rise to 70 or 75, or, in exceptional cases, even higher; during others it will fall to 50 or even lower. The following instances from two country Schools, showing the attendance for the first part of the year, will serve to illustrate this fact—School B being in a remote district of Donegal:—

Month.	Percentage of Average Attendance to Number on Rolls		
	School A.—		School B.—
	Boys.	Boys.	Girls.
January, ...	75	58	47
February, ...	70	54	50
March, ...	66	58	48
April, ...	47	38	40
May, ...	57	35	46
June, ...	64	55	77
July, ...	64	62	68

175. Finally, in the country even more than in the towns, a large number of children are irregular in their attendance to a degree quite exceptional in England. The Schools are open, as a rule, on 200 days at the least each year; but I found constantly that in a country School, *e.g.*, of ninety children, some twenty-five children did not make 100 attendances. 31 per cent. of the pupils on the rolls of the Irish Primary Schools were absent on more than 100 days; and though a considerable number of these children are infants, there can be no doubt that at least some 15 per cent. of the elder children fail to attend School half time; while in the country districts my experience would lead me to agree with the estimate made by the most experienced Inspectors of the Board, that barely 25 per cent. of the children in most Schools make 150 attendances out of the possible 200.*

* *cf.* Mr. Parker's observations, p. 87, App. to Report of Commissioners for 1901.

The official returns show that only 8 per cent. of the children attended on 200 days or over; in Connaught only 3.9 per cent. In England the certificate of previous due attendance required for the exemption of a child from school cannot be obtained unless the child has attended at least 175 full days a year for five years.

176. It is unnecessary to dwell at any length on the importance of the greater irregularity of attendance in Ireland as a cause of the difference of efficiency between English and Irish Schools. It is obvious that the children whose attendance at School is limited to 50 or 100 days a year cannot be expected to make much progress. In consequence, there are almost invariably to be found a number of children, forming in the country Schools that I visited some 15 to 25 per cent of the scholars, who were in a very low standard for their age, and who, though frequently eleven or twelve years of age, could only read and write at all with difficulty. Even in the town Schools these children are much more numerous than in England. In the St. Joseph's Girls' School, Dublin, for example, I found out of thirty-four children present in Standard IV.—a class which an English child, as a rule, leaves at eleven years of age—four children over thirteen, seven over twelve years of age. In these cases it appeared almost invariably upon inquiry, that the defective education was due to irregularity of attendance. Further, though the syllabus for the highest classes, Standards V. and VI., in Ireland is not so difficult as in England, the number of children who reach them is smaller. The percentage of children in Ireland who were in these Standards was 19.1. The figures for the whole of England are not now published; but in the country districts of Lincolnshire the percentage based on returns from 198 Schools of an average size of sixty children was 22; in the town Schools of Lincoln it was 25*.

177. With regard to the age at which the children in Ireland leave School no general statement can be made. In towns and in country districts where there is employment to be had, I found they generally leave at thirteen years of age, or sometimes earlier; in other parts, owing chiefly to the absence of any employment, they often remained in the School till fourteen or fifteen, the girls sometimes even longer. In England it is very rare to find children remain at School beyond their fourteenth year. Only 1 per cent of English children, but 6.2 per cent. of Irish children on the rolls of Primary Schools were over fourteen years of age.

178. The causes of irregularity of attendance in Ireland are the same as those affecting attendance in England, especially in the rural districts; but in Ireland they exist in a much more acute form.

Causes of
irregularity of
attendance.

179. The first is the poverty of the great mass of the parents in town and country alike, and the necessity of availing themselves of their children's services either as wage earners or as helpers at home or on the land. Of the influence of this cause, and in most cases of its genuineness, my visit afforded abundant illustrations. In the country Schools especially, the marked decline in attendance during certain months, of which I have given instances, was ascribed universally to the need for the children's labour in potato-picking, cutting turf, herding cattle, and other employment of the same kind. The exact months during which attendance is at its worst vary from district to district. The ordinary seasons are, as might be expected, spring and autumn; but in Mayo and the West of Ireland, the migration of the parents to England during the summer months as labourers often necessitates the absence of the children from School in order to work on the holdings or keep the house.

* For these figures I am indebted to Mr. R. C. Minton, Secretary to the Education Committee for the Borough of Lincoln, and Mr. W. H. Brown, now Inspector of Schools under the West Riding County Council.

180. The second cause which affects the country Schools, is the distance of the School from the homes of many of the children, and the bad weather which prevails in the West of Ireland to a degree unknown in England. On a wet day in Donegal, I found that the attendance in a small School, which usually had twenty out of thirty children present, had sunk to eleven.

181. Again, the attractiveness of the School and the efficiency of its instruction have, as in England, a very direct bearing on the regularity of attendance. I almost invariably found that the most efficient Schools in a district, such as that, for example, at Fintona, in the district of Omagh, where attendance is, as a rule, poor, had a better attendance than the surrounding Schools. It is noteworthy that in the Convent Schools, though the pupils are frequently drawn from the very poorest classes, the percentage of average attendance to the average number on the rolls, is 69·7, and in many individual Schools, *e.g.*, the King's Inn-street Convent School in Dublin, reaches 75.

182. Finally, there can be no doubt that, though the precise weight to be attached to this cause in comparison with the others cannot be determined, irregularity is in a far larger proportion of cases than in England due to the spathy and ignorance of parents. Although under Section 1 (3) of the Irish Education Act of 1892, numerous grounds (including domestic necessity) are held to be reasonable excuses for non-attendance, no less than 10,439 cases where no valid excuse was forthcoming were found in 1902 by the attendance officers in Belfast.

183. The preceding analysis makes it clear that the defects in Irish education due to irregularity of attendance do not admit of any single or sweeping remedy. The causes which lead to irregularity are to a much greater extent than in England bound up with social and economic conditions in which improvement can only be gradual; and such causes cannot be dealt with in isolation from these factors or from the general progress of educational reform. Every measure that tends to render school-buildings more attractive and instruction more efficient, or to awaken greater public interest in the Schools, tends at the same time to improve attendance.

184. I shall, therefore, confine my observations to certain points where the differences in English and Irish legislation and practice appear to be connected with the difference in the regularity of attendance.

185. I found a consensus of opinion that the introduction of compulsory attendance in the large towns had been on the whole beneficial. In Belfast, for example, the percentage of average attendance to the number on rolls, which was only 66 for 1893, rose after the introduction of the Act to 73; and though it has not maintained that level, it is still over 70.

186. In England, children are required to attend on every day that the School is open for secular instruction, failing statutory exemption or reasonable excuse. Under Schedule I. of the Irish Education Act of 1892, children residing in any district adopting the Act are only required to attend on seventy-five days in the half-year. The statements of Inspectors and Teachers alike left no doubt that this legal minimum in Ireland is looked upon commonly by parents as a maximum; and that they considered their duty discharged when the child had completed the statutory number, even though they could perfectly well afford to send it to School for the remainder of the half-year. If this limitation, which does not exist in England, were abolished, some improvement in attendance would probably result.

187. In England the maximum fine which can be inflicted for wilful and repeated irregularity of attendance is now 20s.; under the Irish Education Act it is 5s., which can only be imposed at intervals of not less than two months. There can be little doubt that in many cases of non-attendance in the Irish cities this sum is inadequate. In a large number of cases in

Belfast, according to the official report of the School Attendance Committee, five fines are inflicted in the course of a year without the defendants even troubling to attend the Court.

188. Whether the introduction of compulsion throughout the rural districts of Ireland would effect any improvement in attendance, is a question on which I found a great diversity of opinion among those best qualified to judge. In the view of some experienced Inspectors and Managers, any such step would render education even more unpopular than at present, and the difficulty in enforcing the law would bring its provisions into contempt. I do not feel justified in expressing any general opinion on the question; but the following differences between the English and Irish systems deserve notice.

189. In the first place, the regulation of Schedule I. of the Irish Education Act of 1892, prescribing seventy-five days attendance in every half-year as a minimum, and Rule 56 (a) of the Irish Code, which provides that "Managers may close their Schools for the recognised vacations notified on the Time Table, which should not, as a rule, exceed six weeks, that is, thirty School days in the year," appear too inelastic to admit of application to the circumstances of all the rural districts in Ireland. It would be unreasonable in my judgment to expect that under existing conditions the country Schools in Ireland should exhibit the same regularity of attendance throughout the year as is obtained in the more prosperous country of England. The exigencies of the parents' work on the land and their poverty render the employment of the older children inevitable during certain parts of the year. Under the English Code, a School must be open on 200 full days at least; but, as a fact, most country Schools are open very little more than this number. This allows at least ten weeks holiday a year, whereas in Ireland there are only six. Even under existing circumstances it is difficult to avoid the reflection that the public money employed in keeping open some Irish Schools during months when more than half the scholars, including practically all the older children, are away, as is the case, for example, with various Schools in Donegal, might easily be better expended. The Central Office might consider whether Rule 56 (a) could not be relaxed in such cases, and arrangements made to have the School placed under the charge of a temporary Head Teacher, whose services could be utilised during the months when the School was closed, either as temporary Head Teacher of another School, or as an assistant to fill temporary vacancies. Such temporary Teachers are already allowed as assistants under Rule 211 (a) in a rural School which maintains an average attendance in certain months of the year sufficient for the employment of an additional Teacher.

190. Further, under the Elementary Education (School Attendance) Act, 1899, (Robson's Act), English local authorities have been given power to specify the periods during which children employed in agriculture shall attend School, and to exempt them from further attendance on condition of their completing a prescribed number of attendances within such period or periods. The Report of the Board of Education for 1901-2 states that 522 local authorities had availed themselves of this power, and adds, that the provision in question "has had the advantage of limiting the employment to particular periods of the year, and thereby securing greater regularity of attendance during the winter or other months when the services of children in agriculture are not required."

It appears certain that what should be aimed at in the rural districts of Ireland is a more regular attendance than exists at present in the months when the children can be spared from work; and it might possibly induce some local authorities in the rural districts of Ireland to adopt compulsory attendance if similar powers were given to them in any future legislation on the subject.

191. There is little doubt that any transference of financial responsibility to the locality, if accompanied by the payment of the State subsidy through a Capitation Grant based on the average attendance of the children—a change which has been already discussed—would tend in Ireland as in England to stimulate local interest in securing regularity of attendance. Prior to 1900, the salary of the Teacher in Ireland depended much more largely than at present upon the regularity of the children's attendance; and I found in many quarters an opinion that the abolition of the requirement that a child should have made 100 attendances in the year as a condition of being qualified to earn Results Fees for the Teacher at the annual examination, had caused some decline in the attendance. That requirement was exposed to the grave reproach of throwing upon the Teacher the whole penalty for failure in a matter in which all classes and not merely Teachers are concerned; but if while the salaries of Teachers remained as at present practically fixed, the grants were paid to any local body or association at a rate varying according to the attendance, the natural desire to avoid, as far as possible, the necessity of any local support would cause additional efforts to be devoted to an improvement of the attendance as the means of securing a larger State subsidy.

192. In a few rural districts in England, where the population is very scattered, the plan of conveying children to School in covered carts has been tried with success. Until recent years, the expense incurred had to be defrayed by voluntary effort, since the Board of Education was advised that the public money could not be legally devoted to this purpose. Under the Act of 1902, however, the powers of a Council are expressly "to include the provision of vehicles or the payment of reasonable travelling expenses for Teachers or children attending School or College whenever the Council shall consider such provision or payment required by the circumstances of their area or any part thereof" (Section 23 (1)). It is, therefore, probable that this expedient will be more freely used in future in English country districts.

Some such arrangement is certainly far more necessary in many parts of Ireland than in England. At present on many days in the year, the choice for a large number of Irish children lies between walking one and a half to two miles in the steeping rain or absence from School. It is to be hoped that, if improved means of communication for industrial purposes are introduced into the rural districts of Ireland under the proposals of Lord Iveagh and Mr. Pirvie it may be found possible to utilise them for School purposes, and thus to bring about an improvement in the attendance.

193. Finally, the relations between the Inspectors of the Central Office and the local attendance authorities have not hitherto been so close in Ireland as in England. It does not appear to have been regarded as part of the duty of the Irish Inspector to report to the Central Office in any case where he thinks he can be of assistance to the local authority either by bringing bad cases of irregular attendance to their notice or in any similar way, or where he is of opinion that the local authority is not properly performing its duties under the Act. English experience certainly proves that in the latter case a remonstrance from the Central Office—though not a source of permanent improvement—frequently produces greater activity on the part of the local authority for a time.

The Curriculum and Methods of Instruction in Irish Schools.

194. It will be evident from the preceding discussion that the defects of organisation, staffing, and School attendance described therein have adversely affected the condition of a large number of Irish Schools when compared with English; and it would often be impossible to decide how far the difference in the efficiency of individual Schools or in the progress of

individual scholars was due to the operation of one or more of these causes. But, taking the Schools as a whole, the standard of efficiency is in Irish Schools decidedly lower than in similarly circumstanced English Schools, and this fact must be ascribed in part to the inferiority of the discipline and of the methods and aims of instruction. It is not, of course, to be supposed that all the defects in these points which I shall mention are equally manifest in all Irish Schools, or that they are entirely absent from the English. They are the same in character in both countries; but in Ireland they exist in a more prevalent and striking form. Nor again, are they in the vast majority of cases the result of any want of energy on the part of the Teachers. The Irish Teachers whom I saw impressed me—with but few exceptions—as a conscientious body of public servants anxious to do their best for the children entrusted to their charge. The difference of efficiency between them and English Teachers is due, as will be seen, to the less favourable conditions under which they have hitherto worked; and in order to render a description of the present state of the instruction in Irish Schools intelligible, it is necessary to refer briefly to the history of the curriculum and of the system under which proficiency in it was tested.

195. From 1871 till 1900, the efficiency of an Irish School was tested almost solely by the success of the individual scholars at an annual examination held by the Inspector in all the subjects taught in the School. The compulsory subjects were Reading, Writing, Spelling, Grammar, Arithmetic, Geography, Agriculture for boys in rural Schools, and, where practicable, Needlework for girls; various other subjects were also taken by some Schools, but they were entirely optional. The syllabus and standard for a pass in each class of the School were strictly laid down by the Central Office, and the Inspector was not allowed to travel beyond those limits in his questions or decision. A fee, varying in amount according to the subject or class, was paid to the Teacher for every child who passed at this examination. In England this system of individual examination was formally superseded as long ago as 1890; but since 1867 other tests than that of the success of individual scholars had been applied. In particular, for some eight years before 1890, the general order and efficiency of the School, as determined by inspection as well as by examination, had formed a most important consideration in determining the grant.

The system of examination and the curriculum in Ireland prior to 1900.

This difference of system was observed by the Manual and Practical Instruction Commission in 1899, but it did not fall within the scope of their inquiry to investigate in detail its effect upon the instruction in Irish Primary Schools.

196. Since 1900, the old Results Examination has been abolished, and the instruction is now regulated by the Revised Programme introduced in that year. That programme was designed, first, to introduce certain new subjects into the curriculum, and second, to remodel the methods of organisation and instruction previously adopted. At present, however, its chief effect has been in the former direction; and I found that the methods of instruction, especially in the principal subjects common to both the old and new programme, viz., English (including Reading, Writing, Spelling, Composition, and Grammar), Arithmetic and Geography, have remained in nearly all Schools unchanged in essential respects notwithstanding the recommendations made in the new Programme. Nor is this surprising, when it is remembered that the time and energy of the Teachers during the last two years have been largely devoted to learning the new subjects, and that it is in the subjects previously familiar to them that the force of long tradition and habit is strongest, and that all modifications will be slowest.

197. It will, therefore, be most convenient to reserve my observations upon the Revised Programme until the nature of the methods of instruction still usual, and the result of the past history of the curriculum as seen in the present state of the Schools, have been exhibited. For this purpose I shall contrast the English and Irish Schools under three heads:—(i.) the training of infants; (ii.) the methods of organisation and discipline; (iii.) the methods of teaching employed in the subjects familiar to both, viz., English, Arithmetic, and Geography.

I.—*The Instruction of Infants.*

198. It has long been recognised in England that the principles on which little children of three to seven years of age should be instructed must be essentially different from those employed with older children. In Appendix V. I have printed in full the directions which have been issued by the Board of Education to their Inspectors on the subject, and which have formed in substance the basis of the curriculum and methods in English Infant Schools. They may be summed up here by the statement that the lessons should be shorter than those of older scholars; the instruction in the subjects of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic should be made interesting to the children by constant appeal to concrete illustrations which they can understand and should be diversified by intervals for singing, games, or physical exercise; and that throughout the school-work the attainment of any definite proficiency in those subjects is far less important than to stimulate the children's curiosity and imagination, and to train their powers of observation and expression, whether by such means as are provided by Kindergarten occupations or by conversation-lessons on pictures and familiar objects. These principles have been largely successful in rendering the Infant Schools in many parts of England one of the most satisfactory parts—if not the most satisfactory—of the system of primary education.

Methods of
teaching.

199. In Ireland, before 1900, the curriculum for infants in the vast majority of Schools was limited almost entirely to instruction in the elements of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. It was not until the 30th September, 1898, that suitable exercises of any kind, such as Drill, Singing, or the use of the Ball-frame in Arithmetic, were insisted upon as a condition of the grant. For the purpose of the pass upon which the grant was awarded, it was required in Reading that the younger infants in ordinary Schools should be able to read and spell correctly two or more individual words, and that the older ones should be able to read at least one sentence correctly from their reader.

200. The effect of the long continuance of this system has been to render the use of rational or suitable methods of instruction far more rare in Ireland than in England. The lessons for infants were, I found, almost invariably of the same length as those for the older children, viz., half an hour. In the Reading, which occupies a considerable part of the school-hours, the younger children are made to repeat, generally together, some isolated words written on the blackboard time after time, though they frequently do not understand the meaning of the words; while the older children, reading from a small book of some thirty pages, repeat similarly each page again and again until, as I found not uncommonly, they know it by heart. It is difficult to convey, by a description to anyone who has not been present at this type of lesson, which was usual in my experience, a conception of the extent to which this monotonous repetition of the same few pages day by day is carried in Irish Schools, the object being that the children may be certain to know the particular words or sentences picked out by the Inspector on the day of examination. I very rarely heard a Teacher encourage the children to talk about the subject matter of the piece read or to connect it with any event or lesson, so as to lead them to regard a Reading lesson as other than an aimless repetition of sounds. Nor is this a matter for surprise, since such work would fall entirely outside the scope of the examination.

Similarly, the instruction in Writing is, as a rule, unconnected with the Reading or with lessons in Drawing, while in Arithmetic very much less use than in England is made of concrete illustrations or of the Ball-frame. The instruction is still frequently confined to addition: and, in consequence, while the children can add correctly on their slates numbers exceeding 100 or even 1,000, they are unable to say, for example, how many eggs they would have left if they had 10 and lost 4.

201. These mechanical methods of teaching the rudiments were prevalent in nearly all the smaller infants' classes that I visited, as well as in some of the large town Schools; and when it is borne in mind that until the last few years the instruction was in most Schools practically confined to this work, and that there was no Singing, Drawing, Physical Exercises, Object Lessons, or Kindergarten, it is not surprising that the teaching of infants in the vast mass of Irish Schools falls far below the standard of efficiency and intelligence attained in an average English School. The Revised Programme, though it has not yet appreciably affected the methods of instruction in the ordinary subjects, has done something already to relieve the dulness of the curriculum by the introduction of Singing, Physical Exercises, and, in some classes, Kindergarten and Drawing, though in view of the novelty of these subjects to both Teachers and scholars, the results are not at present of great value in themselves.

202. It is pleasant to be able to report that in a few of the large town Schools that I visited—I may instance the Mayo-street Infants' National School in Belfast—and in nearly all the Convent Schools a much higher level of efficiency has been attained, though they have not shaken themselves free from the methods on which I have commented in Reading and Arithmetic. But, especially in the Convent Schools, I found that Singing, Physical Exercises, Drawing, and Kindergarten had frequently been practised independently of the requirements of the Code for many years; and the instruction in them was often very creditable. I heard, for example, some Kindergarten teaching in the Convent Infants' School at Baggot-street, Dublin, which was quite on a level with that given in the best English Schools. Their superiority may be accounted for to some extent by the fact that the members of the community have, I found, occasionally had opportunities of visiting Schools both abroad and in England, and of thus gaining a wider educational experience than has been open to the ordinary Irish Teacher. The order and attention of the children are not so good as in large English Schools; but in this matter the Irish town Schools are seriously hampered by the inconvenience of their premises, which I described in the first section of my report. It is quite impossible to obtain such close attention from young children when they are gathered to the number of 200 in a single room, as when each class, under its own Teacher, can have the quiet of a separate room.

203. A serious defect, however, in the organisation of these large Infant Schools when compared with the English is the presence of so many children in them who are far beyond the proper age for instruction with infants. Under Rule 102 (a) of the Irish Code, boys and girls are allowed to remain in an Infants' School until they reach the age of ten years. This provision which is freely taken advantage of, not merely leads to considerable overlapping between the Infants' Schools and those for older scholars, since it is common to find a first and second standard in both Schools even when under the same management; but it also hinders the unity of aim necessary if an Infants' School is to perform its proper work. In explanation of this point, it will be simplest to quote the Regulations of the English Department:—"Though the methods of teaching are similar, such older children require a somewhat stricter discipline and lessons of greater length. They do not find the songs and games of the Infants' School attractive, and they are not fit companions for very young children in the playground. Though no rigid rule as to age can be applied—especially in the case of delicate and afflicted children—it may be safely laid down that backward scholars of advanced age would make more progress in knowledge and form better habits in a School for older scholars than in an Infants' School." (Revised Instructions to Inspectors, 1902, page 11.)

Organisation

I should recommend that Rule 102 (a) should be so amended as to require children—save under special circumstances approved by the Inspector—to be transferred to Schools for older scholars on reaching the age of eight at the latest.*

* I understand that this amendment has been made in the Irish Code for 1903, which had not been published at the time of my visit.

II.—*Methods of Organisation and Discipline.*

The draft system. 204. One of the most obvious differences between the Irish and English Schools, especially the larger Schools exceeding sixty children, is the organisation adopted for purposes of instruction in the important subjects of Reading and Arithmetic. In Ireland the usual practice is to divide the children, although of the same age and degree of proficiency, into small groups, termed "drafts," varying in size from ten children, or even less, to twenty, each ranged round a Teacher in a different part of the room. In large Schools the drafts are under the charge of the Assistant Teachers and Monitors; in the small Schools I found them not uncommonly under one or two of the older children. The collective teaching in the large Schools of a class of some forty or fifty children by a single Teacher—the usual organisation in English town Schools—appears to be rare in Ireland.

The draft system was at one time, as is well known, the universal method of organisation in Elementary Schools both in England and Ireland. Its survival in Ireland is due partly to the inconvenient nature of the premises of the large Schools, on which I have frequently commented, and which are badly suited for collective teaching; but partly to its suitability for the purpose of preparing for an examination in which mechanical accuracy on the part of as many children as possible was the sole desideratum.

Defects due to it. 205. One very serious defect which is noticeable in most Irish Schools may be rightly ascribed to this organisation. The children stand so close to their Teacher and to each other that they are not forced to speak clearly in order to be heard. In consequence, both the Reading and the general answering of Irish children are much more indistinct than those of English. Reading, indeed, degenerates at times into a monotonous mumble quite unintelligible to anyone standing but a short distance away.

206. The plan has even more fundamental objections to it. It is obvious that intelligent and stimulating teaching in Reading and Arithmetic cannot be obtained from inexperienced Monitors; they have not the skill, for example, in a Reading lesson to interest the children in the subject matter of the book, or to encourage them to express their own ideas in simple yet correct language; or in Arithmetic, to see that the method on which a sum should be worked is properly understood. All that can be expected from them is to insist on correct pronunciation, and to check the answers to the sums.

But quite as serious a consideration is the laxity of discipline which this system tends to engender. The discipline in the ordinary National Schools compares unfavourably with that of similarly circumstanced English Schools. The children idle and talk much more freely, and are more apt to prompt and copy. One obvious reason for this fact is that the art of controlling a large number of children can only be gained by constant practice, which the Irish Teachers, accustomed always during their term as Monitors to deal with a very small draft at a time, have had no opportunity of obtaining. Even in the Training Colleges the practice of the students appears to be limited very largely to the instruction of these small drafts. At the examination of the students of the Marlborough-street College in practical teaching, at which I was present, the Inspectors heard each student give a lesson to a draft composed of six children, and the training in the Colleges naturally follows the course taken by the examination for which they prepare. It is certain that the capacity to give a satisfactory lesson to half a dozen children affords not the slightest test of capacity to maintain order in a School or class of forty to fifty scholars. On the contrary, the fact of the Teacher's attention having been confined always to a few children necessarily tends to make him lose sight of all children except those immediately under his eye: in consequence, the Irish Teacher of a country School is distinctly inferior, as a rule, to the English in the essential prerequisite of effective instruction in those Schools, the power of teaching one class while still watching and controlling the behaviour of the remainder of the children when engaged in private study.

207. It is to be remembered, further, that under the Results system no grant of any kind was attached to the excellence of the discipline; nor had the Inspectors any opportunity of applying a real test to this important matter. The behaviour of the scholars cannot be properly gauged from their behaviour under the artificial conditions of a formal examination, when the School is practically under the control of the Inspector. The labour involved in the annual examination, retained as it has been by the Revised Programme, is still so great as to prevent the Inspectors from paying incidental surprise visits except very rarely. Thus they very seldom see the School in its everyday working order, or are able to watch the methods of discipline employed by the Teacher.

III.—*Methods of teaching employed in the subjects of English, Arithmetic, and Geography.*

208. The general result of the instruction in the subjects familiar to the ordinary Irish National Schools may be summed up by the statement that the efforts of the Teachers are devoted far more exclusively than in similar English Schools to the attainment of mechanical accuracy, and that much less attention is paid to the vitally important task of seeing, first, that the facts taught are suitable to the age of the children and their needs in after life, second, that the children are able to apply their knowledge for themselves. The bearing of this statement may be best seen by a consideration of the subjects in some detail.

209. The Reading in Irish Schools is quite as fluent and correct as in English, though, as I have said, frequently more monotonous and indistinct; but the children, save in exceptional cases, have not been so well trained as in England to obtain a grasp of the subject matter read, or to regard reading as a means of obtaining information. I commonly found that though the children had been reading a single small book for a year, they were unable to give, when questioned, any account of the general substance of a piece in it, even though in a few cases the piece had been read the day before my visit. In a School, where much of the work was very good, and which in efficiency was above the ordinary level of the Irish Schools that I saw, the top class had been reading an abridged edition of "Ivanhoe"; yet they could not remember, save for one boy, anything as to the actions of the various characters, or give any account of the tournament, though this section had been read a few weeks before. This fact is chiefly due to the faulty methods of teaching reading, on which I commented in connection with the Infants' Schools. The habit of going over each paragraph of a piece again and again until every child has read it—a habit still prevalent in Irish Schools—prevents the scholars from getting any general idea of the piece as a whole.

Reading.

210. Similarly, the Handwriting is quick and legible, and struck me in the top classes as on the whole better than that in English Schools; and the spelling is more accurate, especially among the younger Irish children. But, as a rule, no attention is paid to the selection of the words, the spelling of which is to be learnt. They are taken indiscriminately from the Reading book, and I frequently found children writing out long lists of difficult words of the meaning of which they were quite ignorant, and which, in any case, they were most unlikely ever to use in their after life. Thus, in one country School in the Omagh district, the children had been writing again and again the words, "steinbock," "marmot," "omnivorous"; in another, in Galway, "inertia," "harangue," "inflammatory." I asked the girls whether they could tell me anything that was inflammatory: the only answer I obtained was "food"—the lesson in which the word occurred being one on food. Similarly, much more time is spent in Irish than in English Schools on the transcription of passages from the reading book—often passages of the most unsuitable character. Thus, in one School, taught by an earnest and in many ways an efficient Teacher, girls of about twelve to thirteen years of age were copying the following passage, which it is unnecessary to say conveyed hardly any meaning to their minds:—"Many a single word

Writing and Composition.

is itself a concentrated poem, having stores of poetical thought and imagery" (written in the exercises of two or three children as "imaginary") - laid up in it. Examine it; and it will be found to rest on some deep analogy of things natural and things spiritual." It is, of course, true that the reading book is partly to blame for containing such a passage; but the fact of its being copied shows how little need has been hitherto felt to use the writing lessons as a training in suitable expression.

211. As may be supposed from the excessive attention paid to Spelling, Dictation, and Transcription, the really valuable and educative part of this branch of School work viz., the training of the children to express their ideas in simple yet correct language, to which Handwriting and Spelling are but a means, has been much neglected in Irish Schools. The Composition, as I was assured by most of the Inspectors of the Board, had decidedly improved since the introduction of the Revised Programme which laid greater stress on it, but it was still at the date of my visit, except in a few cases, below the standard now attained in the great majority of English Schools whether in town or country. How absolutely disconnected the teaching of writing and spelling has been in Ireland from its proper end in Composition may be best shown by the following examples, the first being, it is true, more striking than usual, but for that reason not unfitted to serve as an illustration. In a country School the older boys were copying the following well-known passage from their reader:—"The brain of a true Caledonian, if I am not mistaken, is constituted on quite a different plan. His Minerva is born in panoply." The beginning of a simple letter, written by these boys, was as follows:—

"Sir,

"I spent yesterday with the greatest of pleasure. The first thing that I done was to eat my breakfast."

Or, to take another extract—

"DEAR SIR,

"I spent yesterday in the folling way. First by going mass, and when I came home and eat my breakfast."

Again, I was present at the annual examination by the Inspector of a small Girls' School in Kerry. Five of the top girls, varying in age from eleven to thirteen years, were asked to spell the following words:—"Accuracy," "disinterested," "preference." The spelling was correct in all cases; but upon my asking them to write any sentence they pleased with the word "accuracy" in it, only one girl out of the five could produce a reasonable attempt. The remainder wrote the following sentences:—"The girl is accuracy." "He has an accuracy place." "She is accuracy." "This thing is accuracy." The Composition taken was usually limited to letter-writing. Only in a few of the best Schools was it connected at all with the Reading, or used to test the recollection of any oral lesson previously given by the Teacher.

212. Irish Teachers also had obviously not been accustomed to the same extent as English to use the answering of the children in the ordinary lessons as a means of cultivating the power of suitable expression. Practice in oral composition of this kind, which has been widely introduced into even the lowest classes of the English Schools, and forms an invaluable foundation for written composition, is very rare in Irish Primary Schools. Except in a very few cases, I found that little or no notice was taken of incomplete or ungrammatical answers.

213. I have dwelt at some length on these weaknesses in Reading and Composition because they seem to impair more than any others the usefulness of Irish primary education. The ability to lay hold of the substance of a book or a lecture and the cognate ability to express what is seen or known in simple, clear, and accurate language, are essential conditions of advance in the knowledge of any subject; and until the defects which I have noticed

are remedied and the methods of the Irish Primary Schools are more adapted to the development of these powers, their scholars will be but ill-prepared to profit by a Technical or Secondary Education.

214. In Arithmetic—to which a considerable amount of time, often five to six hours a week, is devoted—the Irish children in all classes of School are much quicker than the English at working correctly long sums by rule on paper or slates; and the training which they receive for this purpose is, no doubt, of considerable value in promoting carefulness in work and concentration of attention. Mechanical accuracy has, however, been gained largely at the expense of intelligence. In the latter point, Arithmetic in Irish Schools compares unfavourably with that in English. The children possess much less power to solve mentally simple problems, especially if put to them in a slightly unfamiliar form. In many Schools that I visited—both good and bad—I put such questions as, "Which would you choose, two-thirds or three-fifths of a sovereign," or "If a train goes twenty-four miles an hour, how far does it go in five minutes?" In the highest class most scholars were either quite unable to give a correct answer or did so after great hesitation. It was even more uncommon to find children in any class who could explain intelligibly the method which they were employing in their written work. For example, in a class under a good Teacher, which was working correctly multiplication sums of the type 324×35 , no child could tell me why the figures in the second line of the multiplication were put one place to the left.

Arithmetic.

215. In a confidential memorandum prepared for the use of the Commissioners in 1899, it is stated that "there is a consensus of opinion amongst persons interested in education that the instruction as at present given in Grammar and Geography has very little educational value. The rules of Grammar are, no doubt, learned by heart, and the pupils acquire some knowledge of parsing, but most of this is forgotten after the pupils leave School, and if they wish to speak or write grammatically, it is by observation of correct writers and speakers that they are enabled to do so, and not by having recourse to the rules of Grammar. In the same manner the geographical information obtained at School is comparatively worthless in after life. While at School the children commit to memory with great labour the names of countries, heights of mountains, &c., facts which no doubt are interesting in themselves; but the children form no correct ideas of what the countries, &c., themselves are like."

Grammar and Geography.

The instruction in these subjects is still in many of the Schools that I visited on the lines which were familiar to the Teachers under the old Programme and which are justly condemned in the extract I have quoted.

Grammar is not connected with the Composition and the children, though having a good knowledge of the technical terms used in Grammar and able to parse isolated words very well, make bad grammatical blunders in their written work. In Geography, when it was still taught as a separate subject, the children knew, as the memorandum states, the exact length of the Shannon and the height of Ben Nevis; but it was rare to find a scholar who knew the use of the scale of a map or could make even an attempt at an answer to such a question as "why there are more manufacturing towns in England than in Ireland." Very little use has as yet been made of the geography of the locality as a means of interesting the children in the subject or giving them clear ideas as to the nature of a map. In the country Schools even the oldest scholars were often quite unable to say in which direction—N. S. E. or W.—the nearest town or the sea lay, though they were only a few miles off it. The improvements in geographical teaching to which much attention has been devoted in England of late years, have hardly begun to penetrate the Irish Schools.

216. It is right to add some special observations on the Convent Schools, since from their constitution they necessarily exhibit some differences from the ordinary National Schools in both discipline and instruction. The order and tone in these Schools are generally excellent, a fact which is to be

Convent Schools:
their superiority

ascribed partly to the very large number of adult Teachers employed in them when compared with the ordinary Schools, partly to the constant supervision exercised by the members of the community. It is impossible to doubt the admirable influence which the Teachers in these Schools have over their pupils or the training which is given in habits of order, neatness, and ready obedience. In any broad view of what is involved in the education of children of the poorer classes, these merits, though not capable of being measured with the same definiteness as intellectual proficiency, are not less deserving of recognition.

217. With regard to the instruction, the reading of the older children was generally better than that in the ordinary Schools and in some Convent Schools, notably the Josephian Convent in Dublin, and the St. Vincent's Convent in Cork, reached a very high standard as regards intelligence and distinctness. It is interesting to note that the same point of superiority impressed itself on several of the Assistant Commissioners to the Powis Commission*; and the reason assigned by one of them for it is, I think, in substance correct, that the Sisters controlling the Schools are, as a rule, ladies of higher education and better social position than ordinary Teachers. The Composition was also, as a rule, above that produced in the National Schools. I cannot, however, say that the Arithmetic reached so high a level of accuracy as in the best National Schools and it was not more intelligent. Nor did the instruction in Grammar and Geography impress me as being essentially different in character from that on which I have already commented.

Needlework.

218. The Needlework which I saw in the ordinary National Schools was fairly satisfactory when judged by English standards. In the Convent Schools, where much attention has been devoted to this subject, it was, as a rule, exceedingly good, though fine and elaborate to a degree discountenanced in recent years by the Regulations of the English Code.

Cause of the inferiority of Education in Irish Schools.

219. The observations made in the preceding paragraphs will serve to show the respects in which the instruction given in the subjects which have hitherto formed the staple of the curriculum for ordinary Irish National Schools appears to me defective when compared with that of similarly-circumstanced English Schools. I cannot, however, too strongly emphasise the fact that the blame for this inferiority does not rest, save in individual cases, with the Teachers. The faults described are the natural fruit of long continuance in a system under which examination on a narrow and rigid syllabus has been made the sole end in education. That system, doubtless, was at the date of its inception necessary and valuable. The Powis Commissioners found that only 7 per cent. of the children on the rolls of National Schools ever got beyond the third standard; and it was imperative to devise some means of ensuring that the majority of children should not leave School till they had mastered at least the rudiments of education and were, in the technical sense of the word, "literate." This purpose the system of "payment by results" fulfilled; but its retention far beyond the time when it had done its work has tended to crush out real intelligence and interest, and to confine the efforts of the Teachers within an unduly narrow channel.

The effect of "Payment by Results."

220. In view of the apprehensions which I found widely spread among Managers and others interested in the Primary Schools of Ireland at the changes in the system introduced in 1900, I will venture even at the cost of some repetition to show a little more fully how intimately connected are the defects which I have described in the ordinary subjects of Irish primary education with the past system of examination. In such an important subject as Reading, the syllabus provided that "the children in each class should be able to read with ease, correctness, and intelligence the lessons of the Reading-book used by that class and be acquainted with the meanings of the words and phrases found in the lesson read." The result

* See Report of Powis Commission, Vol. I., pp. 283, 284 and 287.

was the method of instruction still prevalent in the ordinary Schools. The Teacher knowing that the examination was limited to the particular book, confined himself to going over it again and again until the children were letter perfect in it. It was not until the sixth or top class was reached that the Inspector was allowed to see whether the children could read in any true sense of the word by testing them on an unseen piece of equal difficulty to those read during the year; nor was he allowed in any class to see whether the children had acquired the power of grasping the general sense of a passage or whether they remembered any of the subject matter of the book at large. He was strictly confined to questions on the meaning of isolated phrases and words in the single lesson read before him. Similarly, in Writing, no Composition was required till the fifth class and even then only a letter. In all the lower classes the only test applied was the writing of a passage from dictation; and that passage must be taken from the Reading-book. Accordingly, every word and every sentence in the Reading-book—whether suitable or not—were transcribed and spelt again and again throughout the year in order to ensure the success of the children. The instances quoted above of the gross absurdities to which this uneducational practice directly leads become explicable at once in the light of this rigid provision. Again, Mental Arithmetic was not required till Standard IV., and then it was strictly limited in amount. The Inspector could not under the syllabus ask any questions to ascertain whether the methods on which the sums in the examinations had been worked were understood. So long as the answer was correct, the scholar passed. It is unnecessary to go into similar detail with regard to Grammar and Geography; it is sufficient to say that both syllabus and examination were equally narrow.

221. It was clearly not to be expected that Teachers whose salaries depended on bringing every child up to the standard of mechanical accuracy required, would display any initiative in going outside the terms of the syllabus, would, for example, introduce Composition or Mental Arithmetic at an earlier stage than was prescribed or allow children who had read one book through, to proceed to a new one. On the contrary, such initiative might have endangered the grant: and therefore the natural procedure was to allow the clever children who were certain to pass the examination to mark time and idle while by means of the draft system the backward children were brought up to the necessary standard. Much of the failure in discipline of which I have spoken is due to this long-continued habit of entirely neglecting the majority of the children in order to concentrate attention on a few less intelligent or less regular in attendance.

The Revised Programme.

222. The abolition of the Results Examination was therefore in my judgment the indispensable condition precedent to any attempt to make the instruction in Irish Primary Schools more rational and suitable. The inferiority of the education given in them to that given in similar English Schools is to be ascribed largely to the more recent date at which this step was taken and to the fact that in England the system of individual examination never assumed such a stringent form or so completely dominated the curriculum as in Ireland.

223. In addition to this Reform, the Revised Programme of 1900 introduced alterations into the syllabus of the subjects hitherto considered viz., English, Arithmetic, and Geography, and called attention to various points in the methods of teaching them. The changes made are, as a whole, directly designed to counteract gradually the chief faults which I have described. Composition is now required from the Third Standard upwards, while it is declared "to be of immense importance that children should be trained from the earliest age to express themselves fully and accurately in replying to questions." The Prefatory Memorandum to the Programme urges the limitation of Grammar lessons in the junior classes to those rules that

have a direct bearing on correctness of speech. Mental Arithmetic is to form an essential portion of the instruction in Arithmetic in all classes and special stress is laid on the necessity of the "pupils acquiring an intelligent appreciation of the rules and of the reasons of the various processes employed." The observations made on the teaching of Reading and of using it as a means of obtaining information appear to me to be of great value. It is, therefore, unnecessary for me to discuss this part of the Revised Programme in detail; and I shall confine myself, first, to indicating certain differences from English practice which hinder the accomplishment of the reforms that the Central Office has in view: second, to considering how far the changes made in the curriculum by the addition of new subjects to those previously familiar to Irish National Schools have a tendency to remedy the inferiority of those Schools to similarly-circumstanced English Schools.

1.—Hindrances to the Reforms of the Revised Programme.

224. As my description of the existing state of the instruction in the majority of the Irish Schools has sufficiently shown, it will take a considerable time before any changes in the syllabus however well-devised and any recommendations of improved methods of teaching such subjects as English and Arithmetic can be translated fully into practice. The habits and traditions of a system which has remained practically unchanged for nearly thirty years are not easily abandoned; and the older Teachers especially must find it difficult if not impossible to adapt themselves to a programme requiring more elasticity and initiative than that so long familiar to them. Under these circumstances the success of any efforts to render the instruction more intelligent must depend largely upon the Inspectors of the Board, since they are the persons of knowledge and influence best able to guide and assist Managers and Teachers during the period of transition in carrying gradually into effect the necessary improvements in curriculum and methods. Up to the present, however, the time of the Inspectors has been occupied chiefly not with the work of inspection proper but with the holding of a detailed annual examination of every School, whatever its condition; and the labour involved has left them very little opportunity of paying incidental visits at which they could observe the School at work and offer suggestions and advice.

In England, for some years past, the Inspectors have ceased to hold an annual examination and have paid in lieu of it at least two visits without notice to a School during the year. Some oral examination naturally forms part of the visit, and a formal written examination may be held if the Inspector considers that a School has fallen distinctly below a proper level of efficiency. It would, I think, greatly facilitate the introduction of better methods of instruction if the Inspectors in Ireland could be similarly relieved from the necessity of holding a formal and detailed examination, except in cases where they were distinctly dissatisfied with the progress made. It is to be observed that the apprehensions felt in England as to the deterioration of the work in accuracy and thoroughness in consequence of the substitution of inspection for examination—though the fact of such deterioration is by no means universally admitted—have had reference chiefly to the town Schools, where there is most danger of inspection being hurried and superficial owing to the number of large classes under instruction. But in Ireland the vast majority of Schools are so small that a thorough inspection is comparatively easy; and in any case the danger is met by giving the Inspector power to examine when he considers it desirable.

225. The Revised Programme contains at present only a single syllabus for most subjects. It is true that Managers and Teachers are urged to draw up and submit for approval alternative schemes of instruction suited to the special circumstances of their School; but I found that hitherto practically no

advantage had been taken of this unaccustomed liberty. The Teachers have indeed in most cases insufficient experience upon which to construct such schemes. It would, I think, promote the end which the Programme has in view, if the Central Office in Ireland could circulate among the Teachers several specimen schemes of instruction showing in detail how the curriculum and organisation can be best adapted to the needs of various types of School, *e.g.*, a small rural School, taught by one Teacher, a larger rural School under two Teachers, a large urban School. In particular, the Inspectors might be asked to furnish a detailed description of the work actually done and the methods of teaching and organisation employed in any School where some subject *e.g.*, Reading or Composition was exceptionally well taught; and such description might be circulated among similar Schools. This plan has been followed in recent years by the Board of Education in England, particularly with the view of assisting Teachers in rural Schools in such subjects as Object Lessons, Drawing, and Cottage Gardening.

In two subjects of which I have already spoken, such alternative schemes seem to me very desirable *viz.*, Arithmetic and Geography. It is obvious that a course of Arithmetic which may be well suited to a country School or to girls, is not so well adapted to meet the needs of a boys' School in a large city such as Belfast, especially if the attendance is fairly regular and the boys belong to a class which will seek employment in business houses. For the upper classes in such Schools the present course which appears to have provoked some dissatisfaction, seems to be too meagre. If the syllabus for the Irish Schools is compared with that for the English it appears that whereas an Irish boy is not expected to have mastered all the Compound Rules till Standard V, in England this has been completed by Standard IV.; and while fractions in England are taken in Standard V., in Ireland they are not introduced till Standard VI. In good town Schools the exercises in measuring and weighing in the lower classes might well be abridged so as to allow the last two years of a boy's school life to be devoted to arithmetic of a more strictly commercial character. In the country Schools, on the other hand, for which in the main the course appears to be well suited, less attention under existing circumstances might be given to the instruction in the Metric System than is now required.

The Programme at present does not provide any syllabus for Geography but recommends that the subject should be studied incidentally through the Geographical Reader. In the present state of the Reading in Primary Schools this provision seems hardly practicable; and I found as a fact that in the Schools where this method had been followed, the children had retained but the slightest knowledge even of important places and countries. In any case Geography is a subject in which, though a Reading book may usefully serve as a basis for instruction, good oral teaching is necessary in order to interest the scholars and fruitful in increasing their intelligence. In this subject some specimen courses of graduated instruction in Geography beginning with the geography of the School district and accompanied by some definite hints as to the points to be touched upon in teaching, would be exceedingly useful. At present the instruction tends to consist in learning by heart a string of disconnected and sometimes unimportant names, while the proper understanding of a map, the hearing of the climate and physical features of a country on its industries and similar topics calling for the exercise of intelligence and not of memory alone, are neglected. The same observations apply to history which had not been previously studied in most Irish Schools.

226. The course for infants should be definitely separated from that for the older scholars: and special instructions and detailed hints to Teachers as to curriculum and methods should be drawn up by the experts at the disposal of the Board. There can be no doubt that the training of younger children is one of the weakest points in Irish Primary Education; and in view of the fact that the intelligence with which a child attacks the ordinary School subjects in later years is largely determined by his education in the Infants' School, an improvement in it is most desirable.

II.—*New Subjects introduced by the Revised Programme*

227. The subjects of instruction which the Revised Programme has added to the curriculum of Irish Primary Schools may be divided into two groups (i.) Singing, Drawing, Physical Drill, and Object Lessons; (ii.) Hand-and-Eye Training, Elementary Science, and Cookery.

A.—*Singing, Drawing, Physical Drill, Object Lessons.*

228. The first group of these subjects together with those dealt with in the preceding paragraphs viz., English, Arithmetic, Geography, History, and Needlework (for girls), now forms the usual curriculum of all English Schools under Article 15 (b) of the Code. Singing, Drawing, and Object Lessons have been taught in English Primary Schools for many years.

In Ireland some of these subjects were taught as optional subjects prior to 1900, but how rarely the first column of the following table will show:—

Subject.	No. of Schools out of the 1,000 Irish Schools in which subject was taught during year ended 31.12.01.	During year ended 31.12.01.
Singing, ...	1,475	6,032
Drawing, ...	2,146	8,349
Object Lessons, ...	—	7,673
Physical Drill, ...	—	8,439

It will be observed that Drawing and Physical Drill are now practically universal, while Object Lessons and Singing are rapidly approaching the same position.

229. There can be no doubt that the absence of these subjects from the curriculum in Ireland, though in foreign countries as well as in England they have been considered as essential elements of the curriculum for Primary Schools, has been an important cause of the difference in efficiency between Irish and English Schools. No proposition in the theory of education can be considered more certain or is more amply confirmed by experience than that a limitation of the Primary School course to such a narrow range of subjects as was usual in Ireland before the Revised Programme defeats its own aim. Not merely does the study of Reading or Arithmetic if unrelieved by lighter and more pleasant exercises such as Singing, involve a most undesirable strain and monotony for the childish mind; but the neglect to cultivate in any way many sides of a child's activities both physical and mental avenges itself by impairing his proficiency even in the few subjects actually taken. A child whose body is properly exercised and under control, who has been trained to use his hands and eyes and to feel an intelligent curiosity in the objects about him, attacks the difficulties involved in such subjects as Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic with more vigour and more intelligence than one whose mind has been confined from the first in a single rigid groove.

230. In almost all the Schools that I visited, I found the Teachers welcomed the introduction of these subjects, especially Singing and Drawing, while it was impossible to doubt the interest and enjoyment of the children in them. As I said at the outset of this section, to compare the results of the instruction at present with the standard attained in English Schools would be unfair and valueless; in many cases the work was still in its first year at the time of my visit. In several of the country Schools, however, the instruction in Singing and Drill—the easiest subjects for the Teachers to learn—had reached a very creditable level of efficiency considering their novelty; and it was clear that only practice was necessary to bring it up to a satisfactory standard. Of Object Lessons I shall have

Proficiency in these subjects in ordinary Schools.

occasion to speak later in connection with Elementary Science. It is sufficient to say here that there is, perhaps, no lesson which calls for more skill and resource on the part of a Teacher if it is to encourage the children to observe and think for themselves and not to degenerate into a disconnected series of purposeless questions and answers or a mere recital of information about the object by the Teacher. Improvement in these lessons can only come concurrently with a gradual improvement in the general methods of instruction hitherto usual among Irish Teachers.

231. The curriculum of the Convent Schools has for many years been wider than that of most ordinary National Schools. Singing and Drawing were commonly taught long before they were made compulsory by the new Programme. Of the proficiency in Singing it would be difficult to speak too highly; in some of the Convent Schools, *e.g.*, the Sligo Convent, the Queenstown Convent, and the St. Vincent's Convent at Cork, it was equal to any that I have heard in the best English Schools. The Physical Exercises were also well done.

Proficiency in
Convent Schools.

232. In England the apparatus for the instruction in Drawing has been generally provided by the local Managers of the School without direct assistance from the State. In Ireland the expense has been, as a rule, met by an Equipment Grant from the State at the rates laid down in Rule 109 (f). Similarly, the provision of Organising Teachers to instruct the Teachers in new subjects such as Physical Drill has in England been undertaken either by the local authorities or by Managers. In Ireland the Central Office has appointed Organisers for Elementary Science, Musical Instruction, Hand-and-Eye Training (including Drawing), Kindergarten, and Cookery.

Provision of
apparatus for
these subjects.

The expense of introducing these subjects has thus fallen mainly on the State in Ireland, the estimate for the ensuing year amounting to £29,200. On the other hand, it will be evident from the preceding paragraphs that the part of this expenditure which has been devoted to the introduction of Drawing, Object Lessons, and Singing, has been in my judgment of the greatest value.* The Equipment Grants though not amounting to a large sum, have undoubtedly tended directly to increase and will increase still more the efficiency of the Irish Schools—a statement which, as I have shown, could not be made without considerable qualifications of much of the additional expenditure incurred in recent years on account of primary education.

B.—Hand-and-Eye Training, Elementary Science, Cookery and Laundry Work.

233. The remaining subjects of the curriculum for Irish Schools as laid down in the Revised Programme are those in the second group *viz.*, Hand-and-Eye Training (including Kindergarten for infants), Elementary Science, Cookery and Laundry-work. The number of Schools in which these subjects were taught on 31st December, 1899, and 31st December, 1901, is shown in the following table:—

Subject	31st December, 1899.	31st December, 1901.
Hand and Eye Training and Kindergarten,	448	2,700
Elementary Science, ...	—	1,745
Cookery, ...	125	409
Laundry Work, ...	11	234

For the two former, as for Drawing, an equipment supply is granted by the State to Schools where the expense cannot be defrayed locally, and where there is a Teacher competent to use it. (Rule 109.)

* The nearest parallel to the Equipment Grants in English administration is to be found in the Aid Grant to Voluntary Schools under the Act of 1897. A part of this grant was frequently devoted to improving the apparatus and equipment of those schools, especially in the poorer localities.

Hand and Eye Training.

234. Hand-and-Eye Training consists partly of what is known in England as suitable occupations for infants and younger children *e.g.*, bead-threading, simple Kindergarten exercises with tablets and cubes, and folding paper in simple geometrical designs. Such exercises have now been compulsory for some years in England. I have already expressed my opinion as to the urgent need of rendering the instruction of infants in Ireland more interesting and suitable. It is therefore unnecessary for me to speak of the value of the apparatus supplied and the instruction given to the Teachers in this part of the syllabus.

235. Besides these exercises, however, the Revised Programme has also introduced under the head of Hand-and-Eye Training a system of Manual Instruction for all the older scholars. It consists chiefly of exercises in wire-work and card-board work as shown in the following syllabus:—

3RD STANDARD, (3rd Class.)	More advanced exercises on Brick work, placing six or more bricks from description, and from plan and elevation. Transferring points from a brick to the drawing and vice versa. Drawing the plan and elevation of several bricks. Simple exercises in string work. Tying a reef knot, a slip knot, &c., from drawing.
4TH STANDARD, (4th Class.)	More advanced exercises in string work and parcel tying. Sewing in the leaves of a book, &c. Wirework, bending wire in one plane, forming designs of straight lines to gauge measurement and judgment. Chain work. Drawing the right angle development of an acute angle design. In each case a complete drawing to scale or dimension must be made on dotted paper before the work is begun.
5TH STANDARD, (5th Class.)	More advanced exercises in wire bending. Introducing designs in two planes and curves. Drawing the plan and elevation and making a design in wire from description. Special encouragement to be given to original designs drawn full size and composite designs stitched on to cardboard. Flat cardboard work. Making the drawing full size on plain cardboard. Cutting out without the aid of a rule as a guide for the knife. Developments of simple models.
6TH STANDARD, (6th Class.)	More advanced exercises in flat work. Decorating in pencil and colour. Special encouragement should be given to original or part original designs. These designs are best first of all drawn freehand on dotted paper. Simple scroll work and built up cardboard models by the use of the clench pin. The drawing to be made either full size or to a scale.

236. Such instruction has never been compulsory in England and has been confined to very few Schools, notably certain large Board Schools in the great cities, *e.g.*, London, Birmingham, Bristol, &c. In 1901-2 it was given only in 128 Schools throughout England; and it is certainly almost unknown in the rural Schools.

The reasons which have dictated English practice in this matter are two-fold; in the first place, the expense involved in the provision of the necessary apparatus has been a deterrent to the Managers in rural districts and most towns; in the second, while there is no doubt that such instruction may be of educational value in the hands of an exceptionally skilful and enthusiastic Teacher, it has been found to degenerate under ordinary conditions into merely mechanical manipulation of a type useful for very young children as a relief from more tiring lessons but fundamentally unsuitable for older children whose intelligence is at a more mature stage. It has been observed that the dexterity of hand and training of the observation which it is the aim—though through a different vehicle—of this instruction to

impair, are already encouraged by Drawing and Object Lessons. In consequence, it has been felt in most English Schools that time and money would under existing circumstances be more profitably spent on the improvement of these subjects as being more within the capacity of ordinary Teachers.

237. These considerations appear to me to apply with special force to the Irish Schools. What may be successfully attempted under the favourable conditions of a large English Board School may clearly prove quite valueless when transferred at the present juncture to an Irish country School hampered by irregularity of attendance and conducted by a Teacher to whom even many subjects long familiar to all English Teachers are novelties. The simplest forms of Hand-and-Eye Training viz., Drawing and Object Lessons present, naturally enough, great difficulties to him. It is therefore, not surprising that he has failed to grapple even after a short course of training with the more ambitious forms of this instruction which in England have only been carried out successfully by a small number of exceptionally competent Teachers. Nearly all the lessons in this subject which I saw were valueless for older children, so far as any real training of the intelligence was concerned; and this fact was, as a rule, frankly admitted by the Teachers themselves who generally characterised the work in the upper classes as "a waste of time."

238. Apart from this subject, the curriculum of the Irish Schools has been greatly widened by the new Programme; and it certainly appears to me that for the present, until the Irish Schools have reached a more satisfactory standard in the ordinary curriculum of English Primary Schools and the Teachers are more at home in such absolutely indispensable subjects as Singing, Drill, Drawing, and Object Lessons, it would be advisable to concentrate attention on the improvement of these subjects and to withdraw the syllabus of Hand-and-Eye Training as a compulsory subject for the upper classes of Schools. The equipment supplies should be limited save in exceptional cases to the apparatus necessary for the instruction of the infants and younger children in suitable occupations; while such of the staff of Organisers in the subject as prove to be still needed should be amalgamated with the Organisers for Kindergarten Instruction who have, I understand, been recently appointed.

Elementary Science.

239. The existing Syllabus of Object Lessons and Elementary Science consists of the four following courses:—

(ALTERNATIVE COURSES.)

	COURSE I. Experimental Science.	COURSE II. Principles of Agriculture and Horticulture.	COURSE III. Sound, Light, &c.	COURSE IV. Electricity and Magnetism.
1st STANDARD.	<i>Infants up to First Class.</i> Object lessons on natural objects selected so far as possible that every child should be able to handle them either in the school or in the home. <i>First Class.</i> Twenty object lessons on some common objects or changes, <i>eg.</i> —the fire, candle flame, burning oil, ice, water, steam, salt, soda, sugar, flour, starch, soap, an egg, butter, milk, chocolate, &c.	<i>Infants up to First Class.</i> Object lessons on the elements about a farm, their food and usefulness. <i>First Class.</i> Twenty object lessons on the principal plants and vegetables in kitchen garden or in farm.	<i>Infants up to First Class.</i> Sounds and colours, musical sounds. A piece of looking-glass. Prisms and diffraction. Transparency and opaque substances. <i>First Class.</i> Twenty object lessons. High and low notes, colours. Breaking up of white light by glass of glass or bottle of water. Heat from the sun, burning glass.	<i>Infants and First Class.</i> General object lessons to cultivate careful observation. See Course I.

(ALTERNATIVE COURSES—continued.)

2nd STANDARD.	Twenty object lessons on— The properties of common substances—Solubility, combustibility, solubility, buoyancy, evidence, and hardness, melting, expansion, solids, liquids, gases.	Twenty object lessons on— Use of implements used in farm or garden. Study life on a farm. Ploughing, sowing, reaping, the dairy, flour, milk, &c., &c.	Twenty object lessons on— Turning, drill, calking, effects of drill on substances. Methods of conveying heat from one place to another. Flame, current, usage of best piece of painted metal.	Twenty object lessons on— Effects of rubbing such substances as paper, wax, chalk, with silk, flannel, &c. The Electro-scopes.
3rd STANDARD.	Measurement of iron, steel, and volume. Water displaced by a body immersed in it. The screw or lever leading to a knowledge of the use of scales or balance. Relative weight of different kinds of material.	Character of the root, stem, leaves, flower, and fruit of common plants. Effects of watering, heat, frost, &c., on plants.	Melting, dissolving in hot and cold water. Expansion, the thermometer. Its construction and use. Boiling and freezing points.	Properties of magnets. Attraction, repulsion. Magnetisation. The compass needle.
4th STANDARD.	Floating bodies. Weight of a body in water. Air has weight. Water pressure, its laws, buoyancy, syphons. General effects of heat on matter. Expansion. Measurement of volumes by hydrometer. Evaporation, moisture in the air. Weather observations. Soluble and insoluble substances. Impurities in drinking water. Changes in appearance and weight of various substances heated in air.	Functions of different parts of a plant, the food supply of a plant. The necessity for cultivation. Fruits, buds, tubers, seeds.	Evaporation. Heat energy. Reversible operations. Work. Measurement of heat.	Simple magnetic fields of earth, bar magnets, horse shoe magnet. Terrestrial magnetism. Magnetic compass.
5th STANDARD.	The units of heat and temperature. Division of matter into weight experiments. The various alloy changes occurring in iron, copper, lead, and phosphorus, in the air. Active and inactive part of air. Solubility of metals in acids and gases evolved in the process. Inflammable air or hydrogen. Gases produced by burning hydrogen shown to be water. Decomposition of steam by heated iron.	The effects of sunlight, soil, and the atmosphere on growth of a plant. Different kinds of soil, their mechanical properties and treatment. Crops best suited to each.	Intensity of light, shadows, Pinhole camera, Reflection, mirrors, Refraction. Simple explanation of magnifying glass.	Voltaic battery, and notions of a current. Magnetic and heating effect of a current. Galvanisation, electroplating.
4th STANDARD.	Revision of heat experiments. Laws of heat, marble. Effects of heat, water, and acids on substances. Oil of vitriol. Charcoal. Proceed to be identified with that produced by fermentation in grapes. Encourage to show chalk—hydrocarbonates and gas, lime and soft water.	The progress of the various operations of a farm. The various stages of manure, drainage of the land. Broad classification of common plants, and chief characteristics of each class.	Propagation of sound. Elementary notions of vibration and waves. Echoes, Qualities of sounds, pitch.	Chemical effect of a current. Electrolysis, Electrolytic telegraph. Telephones. Production of a crystal by melting a salt in a desiccator field. Elementary notes of electrical electricity.

In England the study of any specific branch of Science is not required under the Code, and in 1901 was taken only by 574 Schools as an additional subject. These Schools, as a rule, are large urban Schools, frequently of the type known as Higher Grade Schools. The Code, however, prescribes for all Schools a course of lessons on common things, varied to suit the circumstances of the locality.

240. Looking to the existing conditions of Irish primary education, I cannot but think that Courses III. and IV., and the higher stage of Course I. in the syllabus given above can at present be studied with profit in very few Schools. They are, for many reasons, beyond the capacity of both scholars and Teachers. Even the older scholars in most Schools have not yet attained the facility in expressing themselves whether by writing or drawing, which is necessary for that essential part of a lesson in Experimental Science—the recording of their observations and experiments by the children themselves. It is also undoubted that to give successful elementary instruction in such branches of Science as Magnetism and Electricity a Teacher needs to possess considerable knowledge of the subject himself. Failing that

qualification, the lessons become pretentious and useless, and the main purport of them is obscured by the want of mastery over the technical terminology of the subject. The Irish Teachers have not hitherto had the advantage of any study of these subjects in their Training Colleges; and while the short courses of instruction in Experimental Science under the Organisers had been, as I should like to testify, most valuable in setting before them models of what good class-teaching should be, and have thus improved the methods of instruction in general, any wide knowledge of a specific science cannot be imparted in the time. An even more important consideration is that nearly all the country Teachers, under which head seven-eighths of the Irish Teachers fall, live far from any town where they could have the advantage of the necessary lectures, appliances, and laboratories for following up their studies. They are bound, therefore, to be in the position of knowing but little more than they have to teach—a condition under which really profitable instruction can never be given.

241. Again, the vast majority of the Irish Schools are rural Schools. The objects, however, with which Courses III. and IV. deal *e.g.* the voltaic battery, the electric bell, even the thermometer and barometer, are very unfamiliar to the children, and the study of them, though interesting at the moment, cannot possess the same permanent vitality as one reinforced by the impressions derived from the children's daily surroundings outside the School walls. Partly for this reason, the tendency in the best English country Schools is to substitute for lessons on such a science as Electricity or Chemistry simple lessons on the plant and animal life of the neighbourhood, their growth, structure, and adaptation to environment, the influence of climate upon them, and similar topics. Of the need for some such instruction in Ireland there can be no doubt. I found, for example, the children in some country Schools unable to tell me the names of ordinary plants or flowers growing just outside the School, or to distinguish the leaves of different trees. Such instruction has also the great advantage that elaborate apparatus, easily broken and expensive to replace, is unnecessary. The specimens to illustrate the lessons can be collected by the children themselves. Experience in England has certainly shown that there is abundant opportunity in lessons of the kind indicated to train the observation and to give some idea of scientific method and experiment, while any Teacher whose interest is once aroused in any of the various sides of country life, whether it be the study of plants or animals or insects, is able to follow it up for himself.

242. For these reasons it seems to me that Courses III. and IV., and the more difficult parts of Course I., should be taken, as a rule, only in the large town Schools where the Teachers are specially qualified to deal with them; and the necessary equipment supplies should be limited accordingly. For the country Schools Course II., modified so as to include some of the simpler experiments in Course I., and in such other directions, as the experience of Mr. Heller, the Head Organiser, will best able to suggest, would be frequently far more suitable. The work of the Organisers in Elementary Science for classes of country Teachers would then be on the lines of the classes organised in Nature Study of late years for rural Teachers by various County Councils in England. In planning the syllabus for such classes the co-operation of the Board for Technical and Agricultural Instruction would clearly be of the greatest assistance. The Revised Programme recommends that as a help to instruction in Course II., every School should, whenever possible, have a small plot of ground as a garden. In one of the best Schools that I visited, the St. Andrew's National School at Malahide, this plan was pursued with admirable results; but I could hear of no similar case in other parts of Ireland. In England, instruction in Cottage Gardening for boys in rural Schools has made distinct strides during the past two years, the number of Schools taking the subject having increased from 152 in 1901 to 387 in 1903. Apart from the practical utility of the instruction, it can, undoubtedly, in

the hands of a competent Teacher, afford a genuine training of a simple and suitable kind in the methods of scientific experiment and the application of the main principles underlying plant life and growth.

243. In order to encourage it, an extra grant of 2s. or 4s. per head, according to the number of hours during which instruction has been given, is made under Article 101 (k) of the English Code to help in covering the cost of the necessary tools, &c.; and it would, I think, be very desirable if the equipment supply now granted in Ireland could, in the case of country Schools where there was a competent Teacher of Gardening, take the form of a grant of the tools necessary for that purpose instead of the apparatus—chiefly chemical—which is at present provided. At present it is to be feared that qualified Teachers would be rare; but if, as I have suggested, a modified form of Course II. of the existing syllabus becomes the staple of the instruction in Elementary Science in the Irish rural Schools, and the training of the Teachers is regulated accordingly, this deficiency would be gradually supplied.

Cookery and Laundry Work.

244. These subjects have not hitherto been compulsory in English Primary Schools, though they are taught at present to a slightly larger proportion of children than in Ireland. In Ireland, Cookery is taken in all classes; in England, as a rule, only by girls over 11 years of age (Article 101 (g) of the Code). The instruction, however, up to the Fourth Standard in Ireland, though classed under the head of Cookery, consists chiefly of simple instruction in household work, e.g., cleaning dishes, setting tables, laying fires, &c. Cookery proper begins with the fourth Standard, when the girls are, as a rule, of the same age as the English girls who learn the subject.

245. Of the value of and need for simple instruction in domestic subjects in Ireland even the limited inquiries which I was able to make left me in no doubt. The need for it is sufficiently substantiated by the single fact of its popularity among the parents. In every School that I visited where Cookery was taught, I heard the same testimony from the Teachers. There is, so far as I could ascertain, no step, except perhaps the revival of the Irish language, which has done so much to arouse the interest of the parents in the education of their children and in the Primary Schools as the introduction of Cookery into the curriculum. On this ground alone, even were the instruction less useful than it is, measures for its extension deserve, I think, the most earnest attention of the Central Office.

246. In England special grants have been made since 1882 for Cookery or Laundry work under Article 101 (g) and (h) of the Code, at the rate of 4s. and 2s. respectively, for every girl who goes through a satisfactory course of instruction in the year of not less than forty hours in Cookery and twenty hours in Laundry work. In Ireland at present no grant or equipment supply is made by the State towards the cost of teaching these subjects. There does not, however, appear to be any branch of the instruction in Primary Schools on which public money, whether derived from savings effected by the curtailment of the equipment supplies for the present in other directions, or from additional funds at the disposal of the Central Office, could be expended with greater profit.

247. As to the precise form which a grant for Cookery or Laundry work would most usefully take, the experts at the service of the Board will be best able to advise; but it is obvious that the expenditure in fitting up a classroom of an Irish School for the instruction need not be great. Any costly apparatus would be entirely out of place, since the main object of the instruction must

be to show the children how, by intelligent methods, the limited resources and simple food of even poor homes in Ireland can be turned to the best account.

248. Cookery instruction in the towns of Ireland as contrasted with those of England, is hampered at present by the fact that every School is obliged to provide separate instruction for its own pupils. The ordinary National Schools in large cities, unfortunately, possess, as a rule, no suitable room which can be spared for the purpose, and no qualified Cookery Teacher on their staff, though the latter deficiency will be gradually remedied by the influx of Teachers at present undergoing training in the subject in their Training Colleges. The Convent Schools, whose premises are larger, are more happily circumstanced, though even in these the room used is sometimes insufficient in size. Thus, in the Queenstown Convent School, the Cookery-room was so small that not more than sixteen children could work in it at the same time. Even where the room is larger, the fact that all the girls—frequently 200 or more—have to receive instruction necessarily restricts the time during which any individual girl can attend. In some cases each girl can receive instruction for only two hours per month; and rarely more than two hours per fortnight. While this may be sufficient for the simple syllabus of the younger children, the older girls need longer and more frequent lessons if they are to profit to the full by the instruction.

249. In England these difficulties have been met by the formation in almost all the large towns of Centres for Cookery instruction, attended at fixed hours by the older girls from the various Schools in the neighbourhood. The absence of any local authority with a number of Schools under its control is, of course, a hindrance to such organisation in Ireland; but even under existing conditions there appears to be no reason why, with the help of the Inspectors and Managers, a similar plan could not be adopted in some Irish towns. In some cases, such a Centre could be organised in connection with some particular School which, like some of the Convent Schools, has at present a suitable room and a trained Teacher on its staff. By arrangement with its Managers it might be possible to secure the use of the room and the Teacher at convenient hours for the older girls from some neighbouring Schools—any grant or equipment supply given by the State being in that case awarded to the conductors of the School at whose expense the instruction was given.

250. In other cases the Local Technical Education Committees could lend for this purpose of a central class the use of the provision already made in Technical Institutes for the instruction of adults in Cookery, Laundry-work, &c., since this provision is frequently not required in the day-time when it would be needed by the pupils in Day Schools. In such cases also any grant made by the Board of National Education would naturally be paid to the local Committee.

251. This subject has already engaged the attention of the Consultative Committee to the Board of Agriculture and Technical Education, who expressed in 1900 the opinion that "when the Department had provision in Central Technical Schools for instruction in Drawing, Practical Science, Domestic Economy, Laundry-work, &c., such provision should be placed at the disposal of the Board of National Education for the use of pupils in the higher classes of National Schools. Where this provision was availed of by the Board, the Treasury should provide a portion of the Teachers' salaries and of the cost of the material, and should contribute towards the maintenance of the laboratories, workshops, &c."

252. It is obvious that any expenditure by the State on instruction in Cookery for children attending Primary Schools in large towns will involve a waste both of money and teaching power, unless it is accompanied by some such measures for the formation of Centres for the instruction as are outlined

above; and it is therefore most important that steps should be taken as soon as possible to enter into the necessary negotiations with the Managers of individual Schools, which the Inspectors may consider suitable as Centres, and with the Managers of any Technical Institutes who may be able to carry out the suggestions made by the Consultative Committee.

Optional or Extra Branches.

253. In Ireland, under Rule 214 (k) of the Commissioners' Regulations, payment is made for certain subjects if taught outside School hours under the following conditions and at the following rates:—

"Where systematic instruction has been given before or after the regular School hours, at least once a week during the School year, and such weekly instruction is of at least one hour's duration, or where similar instruction is given twice a week, each lesson being of half an hour's duration, the Teacher, if approved as competent by the Inspector, may receive a fee for each pupil who has been in *bona fide* attendance throughout the course in a class which has passed the tests applied by the Inspector at end of the course.

The fees are as under:—

Irish Language,	.	.	.	10s. per pupil.
French Language,	.	.	.	5s. "
Latin Language,	.	.	.	5s. "
Mathematics,	.	.	.	10s. "
Instrumental Music,	.	.	.	5s. "

Not more than two extra branches can be paid for without special sanction of the Board."

254. Of these subjects, Irish and Instrumental Music alone appear to be at all common—the latter in the form of instruction in the Piano or Violin being generally taken in the Convent Schools. From a confidential memorandum with which I have been supplied, it appears that these subjects were retained in the Primary School course owing to the absence of an organised system of Secondary or Intermediate Schools.

In England no grants of this kind are made. The grants for particular subjects are confined to those subjects requiring additional apparatus and specially qualified Teachers, viz.:—Cookery, Laundry-work, Dairy-work, Cottage Gardening, Manual Instruction, and Household management (which includes Cookery and Laundry-work). A subject, such as French, Latin, Mathematics, or Welsh (for scholars in Welsh Schools), is to be taken as part of the ordinary curriculum of the School when the circumstances of the School, in the opinion of the Inspector, make it desirable. The English Department has always refused to sanction instruction in Instrumental Music as a suitable subject for children in Primary Schools. I do not feel able to express any opinion as to the weight to be assigned to the reason urged in the memorandum referred to for the retention of these subjects in Irish Primary Schools at present; but assuming the continuance of the grants, I cannot agree with the contention urged upon the Commissioners that the efficiency of Irish Primary education would be promoted by lessening the scope of the existing syllabus in the subjects of Mathematics, French, or Latin. These subjects should only be taken by exceptional scholars who are likely to remain at School long enough to work through the three years' course, and who may be reasonably expected to attain such a high degree of proficiency as will ensure the permanence of the knowledge acquired. It is most undesirable that the examination should be sufficiently easy to allow candidates with but a superficial smattering of the subject to pass, especially when, as at present, there is no guarantee that the work will be continued beyond one year.

The Training of Monitors.

255. The last and in some respects the most important defect in Irish Primary education which, until it is removed, will continue to militate against the success of the new Programme, is the totally inadequate character of the education and training of the Monitors from whom the supply of adult Teachers is still chiefly recruited.

256. Under the existing Rules 234-237, a Monitor is allowed to teach in School for three hours each day; during the remainder of the School-time he is to be instructed by the Teacher of his School along with the pupils. In addition, he is to receive from the Teacher extra instruction regularly in the prescribed course for Monitors for at least three-quarters of an hour each day on not less than five days a week before or after ordinary School hours, or for half an hour a day on five days and two hours on Saturdays. For the purpose of computing the average attendance of the School, and assessing the grant on extra subjects, Monitors are reckoned as pupils. No special grant, however, is made for their instruction. They are annually examined by the Inspector for the first four years at their Schools, and in the fifth year at the Easter Examination for admission to Training Colleges.

257. In England the duration of the apprenticeship of the Pupil-Teachers who, as I have explained, correspond to the Irish Monitors, is at present three years, except in rural districts, where it may be four years. They may be employed in teaching for not more than twenty hours per week, of which not more than five hours may be on any one day, and must receive at least five hours instruction per week in the subjects prescribed for the examination for admission to Training Colleges. Not more than three hours of this instruction may be given on any one day on which the Pupil-Teacher is employed in teaching in his School. No formal examination by the Department is held till the completion of the course, but the Inspectors are required to satisfy themselves on their visits that the candidates are properly instructed, and are making satisfactory progress. A grant of £2 per annum is made to the Managers for each Pupil-Teacher who receives a satisfactory report.

258. These rules, however, do not show the real conditions under which a very large number of Pupil-Teachers in England work even at present. In most of the large towns such as London, Bradford, Bristol, Nottingham, and even in some smaller towns, many Pupil-Teachers have, for some years past, been employed in teaching not more than half the School-hours on each day. During the remainder of the School-time and on Saturday mornings, their instruction has been given, as a rule, in special Central Classes held usually in premises set apart for this purpose. The staff of such Classes has been generally in the large towns composed of special Teachers, the Head Teacher being, as a rule, a graduate of some University. In many of the smaller towns where the Pupil-Teachers are employed in teaching in their separate Schools during the full twenty hours allowed by the Code, they still attend a Central Class held on certain evenings in the week and on Saturday morning. In the case of these smaller evening Centres, the services of Teachers employed in the Day Schools are occasionally utilised. In a few districts, *e.g.*, in the County of Wiltshire, arrangements have been made for the Pupil-Teachers to attend classes organised in connection with Secondary Schools, whose staffs by the aid of the County Councils have been augmented for the purpose; but this practice has hitherto been exceptional.

The cost of these Central Classes has been defrayed partly by the Government Grant of £2 for each Pupil-Teacher; the deficit has been made up in most cases by the rates if the Centre was conducted by a School Board, in a few cases by voluntary subscriptions.

259. There is no doubt that the provision of these Central Classes, though they are subject to certain disadvantages, the chief of which I shall have occasion to mention later, has done much to raise the standard of education among the English Pupil-Teachers. The contrast between the Pupil-Teachers educated in them and those Pupil-Teachers—generally in voluntary or rural Schools—whose education and training have been conducted in isolation entirely by the Head Teacher of their Schools, has engaged the attention of the English Department for some years; and during the present year, as a result of the inquiries that have been made, fresh regulations as to the instruction of Pupil-Teachers have been recently issued. In an Appendix I have given in full the most important of these regulations. It is sufficient to state here that after 1st August, 1905, Pupil-Teachers will not be admitted to apprenticeship till sixteen years of age (in rural Schools, fifteen). They are not to serve in School for more than half the time the School is open, and they will be required for at least half their School-time to receive adequate instruction in a Pupil-Teacher's Centre for two years. Previous to the age of sixteen, their education is to be conducted either in a Secondary School, with the aid of Scholarships, or in Preparatory classes attached to a Pupil-Teacher Centre. A grant of £2 per annum will be made by the Board for every pupil in the Preparatory classes; and of £3 per annum for every Pupil-Teacher in the Central Classes.

The effect of the new Regulations will, therefore, be to supersede entirely the system under which a number of English Pupil-Teachers have hitherto been instructed solely by the Head Teachers of their Schools for five hours per week.

260. In Ireland no Central Classes for the instruction of Monitors exist; and all Monitors are, therefore, in the same position as those English Pupil-Teachers who have hitherto been debarred from attending a Central Class.

261. As a result of my inquiries, I have no hesitation in reporting that upon his entrance to a Training College, the education of the Irish Monitor is in a very unsatisfactory condition when compared with that of the large body of English Pupil-Teachers who, even under existing regulations, have been instructed in the Centres described in the preceding paragraphs. I was able to inspect some of the examination papers worked by the Monitors at the Easter Examination, when they were at the end of their course. The writing and spelling were as good as are seen in England; but in subjects demanding power of expression and an intelligent grasp of principle, such as Composition or Arithmetic, the work even of highly-placed candidates fell distinctly below the standard attained by candidates at the corresponding English examination. Their knowledge of Geography and History—especially the latter—was very inadequate. The only subjects in which there was at all an equality between the English and Irish Monitors were, so far as I could judge, the Algebra and Euclid done by the male candidates.

262. I am glad to be able to quote in support of this opinion some observations furnished at my request by Mr. W. M. Heller, whose experience, first as Organiser of Science instruction under the London School Board, and then as Head Organiser of the same subject under the Board of National Education, has given him special opportunities of forming an estimate of the proficiency of the candidates for training in certain subjects. He states that in *English* the standard attained by the Irish Monitors, as far as Composition is concerned, is low. "I found," he observes, "that comparatively few candidates can describe accurately an experiment they have performed, and I ascribe this deficiency to the fact that their curriculum under the old Programme was not conducive to accurate thinking, and that insufficient attention has been paid to the

accuracy and completeness of oral answering in Schools. The *Arithmetic* is exceedingly unpractical and unreal. Many candidates who possibly might answer a conventional examination paper fairly well are utterly unable to apply the rules too often learnt by heart without any intelligent appreciation of their meaning." *

263. For these deficiencies the syllabus hitherto prescribed for the Irish Monitors must be held in part responsible. A new syllabus is, I understand, to be issued, to which I was invited by the kindness of the Resident Commissioner to contribute some suggestions. I may, therefore, confine myself to giving a few of the more striking illustrations of the unsuitability of the past course.

264. In view of the large part which oral instruction must play in a Primary School, the importance to a Teacher of acquiring a real command of his own language cannot be overestimated; and the excellence of the German Teacher has been commonly ascribed to the admirable training which he receives in this respect.† For this reason as well as for its influence on general intelligence and culture, there is no taste which it is so desirable to inculcate from the beginning of his apprenticeship in every person about to become a Teacher in a Primary School as a taste for good literature. The programme for Monitors, however, in the Irish Schools has done little to satisfy this requirement. For the first four years of his course the Monitor's reading has been confined to the reading-book of the class in which he is being instructed—a book which I found he had generally read three or four times over by the age of fifteen—and to acquiring a knowledge of fifteen essays from the *Spectator*. In the fifth year for his final examination the Syllabus prescribed:—

(a) "Two or three works of English Literature," *e.g.*, Goldsmith's *Traveller* and a Play of Shakespeare.

(b.) "An outline of English Literature, with notice of the lives and works of Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Bacon, Milton, Dryden, Defoe, Swift, Addison, Pope, Gray, Johnson, Goldsmith, Burke, Burns, Wordsworth, Scott, Moore, Byron, Macaulay, and Tennyson."

At the examination questions of the following kind are proposed:—

1. As Whitty is the cradle of English poetry, so is Winchester of English prose.

Explain this statement and describe the works referred to.

2. Name the authors of the following works, with a short description of any one of them:—

- (a.) Hymn of Heavenly Love.
- (b.) Brut.
- (c.) Journal of the Plague.
- (d.) English Bards and Scotch Reviewers.
- (e.) In Memoriam.
- (f.) Dunciad.
- (g.) The Bard.

3. Write a short life of Edmund Burke, enumerating and describing his principal works.

* *cf.* The remarks as to the teaching of these subjects in the Schools, on pp. 64 and 65.

† See vol. IX., p. 303, Special Reports on Educational Subjects, issued by the English Board of Education.

265. It is hardly necessary to point out the pretentious and useless character of such a syllabus. So far from encouraging any interest in good books, it results only in the purposeless employment of learning by heart a series of names and short descriptions of authors and books, not one of which the candidate need even attempt to read. Even the study of the books specified such as Goldsmith's *Traveller* or the play of Shakespeare, is confined to the laborious memorising from an annotated edition of explanations of linguistic difficulties and allusions however unimportant—a process which is in itself calculated to destroy the charm of any poem. Again, until their final examination when they are required to write a short essay, no Composition has been demanded of the Monitors except a letter on an ordinary subject. They have therefore not received any training in what Mr. Hefler justly regards as a most important qualification for a student of a Training College—the power of describing accurately any fact or experiment or of summarising the substance of a book or lecture.

266. Further, the amount of the subjects prescribed for each year has been in some cases so restricted that it is not likely to produce any genuine taste for the study. For a boy who has already learnt Addition and Subtraction in Algebra to spend a whole year in acquiring a knowledge of simple Multiplication and Division is to check the best stimulus to learning, the sense of having made genuine progress and broken new ground. Similarly in Euclid, a Monitor by the end of his first year has been expected to complete thirty-two propositions of the First Book of Euclid; during the remaining four years he only reaches the end of the Second. Prior to 1900, Drawing and Music were purely optional subjects, while no instruction at all was given in Elementary Science.

267. Apart, however, from the defects of the syllabus, the difference in the conditions under which the Irish Monitors and large numbers of English Pupil-Teachers have been taught, and which I have already described, amply explains the disparity in their attainments. The Irish Monitor, save in the case of large Schools, has been either taught alone or with a class of School children; and in either case he has been deprived during the later years of his apprenticeship of the stimulus of competition with his equals, which the English Pupil-Teacher, taught in a Central Class, has had to assist him. Again, he has not been taught by such well-qualified Teachers. It is clear that a Teacher who may conduct a Primary School for children under fourteen years of age with efficiency, is not necessarily qualified to train pupils of fourteen to eighteen years of age who should be receiving what is practically a secondary education. For this purpose a wider culture than the Teachers of Primary Schools have, as a rule, had the opportunity of obtaining and methods of instruction different from those rightly employed in the ordinary work of a Primary School are indispensable.

268. Further, the existing Irish system is peculiarly unsuitable at the present juncture. Many of the Teachers of the Schools in which Monitors are serving, are necessarily unable to give advanced instruction in various subjects *e.g.*, Music, Drawing, Elementary Science, Physical Drill, History, which under the Programme will, in future, form an indispensable part of a Teacher's education. As has been already pointed out, the older Teachers cannot be expected to adapt themselves with complete success to the changed conditions; and the efficiency with which the Revised Programme is carried out, and the measure of its success, must depend largely upon the extent to which the present Monitors are trained to meet its requirements.

269. Finally the direct interest of the State in the adequacy of the training of the Monitors does not admit of question. A large sum of public money, now exceeding £54,000 annually, is spent by the State in maintaining and supporting Training Colleges; but it is impossible not to reflect that up to the present the value of the return for this expenditure has been very

largely diminished by the omission to take steps to secure such a preparation for the candidates entering the Colleges as will enable them to profit to the full by the instruction given there. It is certain that the Colleges, in consequence of the previous unsatisfactory education of the Monitors, have been compelled to devote their time to giving instruction in ordinary School subjects rather than to their proper work of instruction in the principles and methods of teaching. If the task of instructing Teachers in the elements of the new subjects of the Revised Programme is to be left—as under the existing arrangements for the instruction of the Monitors it must in many cases be left—to the Colleges, this evil will be intensified.

270. It is, therefore, in my judgment, essential that steps should be taken as soon as possible to organise the instruction of the Monitors in Ireland on a more satisfactory basis, and to place it in the hands of specially qualified Teachers. Next to the lack of public interest, there is no point in which Irish Primary Education contrasts so unfavourably with English and with which it is more important to deal.

271. The precise nature of the measures which should be taken to remedy this defect, and the form which any State-aid should take, involve questions which can only be properly discussed by the experienced officers of the Board of National Education in the light of their knowledge of the local and other conditions affecting Irish education. But I may, perhaps, offer the following observations on the subject:—

(i.) The conditions are in some respects more favourable to an improvement in the instruction of Monitors in Ireland than they have been in England.

In England the Pupil-Teachers have generally been reckoned as Assistant Teachers, and have in the case of many voluntary or rural Schools been employed practically all day in teaching in their Schools. In Ireland, Monitors can only be employed three hours per day in teaching, the Irish school-day being usually from 9.30 or 10 a.m. to 3 or 3.30 p.m.; and they have never been explicitly counted on the staff of the School. If the proposals which I have made for increasing the staff of certain of the smaller Schools, where the Monitors are at present necessary to help the Teachers, are adopted, there can be no difficulty in securing for every Monitor a half-day, either morning or afternoon, which could be devoted to his instruction elsewhere than at his School. The Central Office should, I think, in future make it a condition of a Monitor's appointment to a School that the Manager of the School in which he is employed will allow him to receive instruction for a specified number of hours (*e.g.*, two) each day elsewhere than at his School.

(ii.) Any organisation of the instruction of Monitors employed in rural Schools in Ireland clearly presents great difficulties owing to the distance of the Schools from one another and the frequent absence of means of communication. The attempt, therefore, to improve existing conditions should begin with the Monitors employed in Schools in the large towns.

It is to be observed that over 1,000 of the female Monitors are employed in the Convent Schools which are not uncommonly situated in or near towns. Such Schools frequently possess Teachers specially qualified in Singing, Drill, Drawing, or Needlework. I would suggest that the conductors of such of these Schools as are considered suitable by the advisers of the Board should be approached with a view to the formation of Central Classes to be attended by female Monitors from the Roman Catholic Schools, whether Convent or Ordinary National Schools, in the town or neighbourhood. The classes could be under the management either of the Conductors of the School or, if it proved desirable, of a Committee consisting partly

of members of the community conducting the School, partly of Managers of the Schools from which the Monitors attended the class. Such classes should be open to inspection, and if for every Monitor satisfactorily instructed in any such class the State paid a grant, *e.g.*, £3 per annum, the Conductors would be able to employ, besides any suitable members of their own staff, one or two specially qualified Teachers. There are in some cases, *e.g.*, at the Convent near Blackrock, Secondary Schools and Training Colleges attached to the Convent; and it might, therefore, be possible to use the services of the Teachers in those Institutions for the instruction of the Monitors in certain subjects.

(iii.) The conditions of education in Ireland seem to render it impracticable at present to raise the age for admission as a Monitor from thirteen to fifteen or sixteen, as has been done in England. In the absence of any organised system of Scholarships open to pupils in the Irish Primary Schools, such a measure would debar the children of the poorer classes from entering the profession. But the large number of Intermediate or Secondary Schools existing in Ireland gives some ground for the hope that Central Classes for the instruction of Monitors residing in the district might in various places be formed in connection with such Schools, as the result of negotiations between the Boards of National and Intermediate Education and the Governors of the Schools. A grant for each Monitor instructed, if paid to the School in connection with which the class was formed, might enable it to augment its staff so as to allow its Teachers to take part in the instruction of the Monitors. In some cases the Monitors could probably attend classes in various subjects with the ordinary pupils of the School.

Such a connection between the Intermediate School and the Central Class, if practicable, possesses the great advantage of bringing the future teacher from the first into contact with those of his own age who are intended for other careers than that of teaching. The exclusive association of a Monitor with those of his own type and occupation—which the institution of separate classes for their instruction otherwise involves—has been found to induce frequently a narrowness of view and interests prejudicial to any sound education.

272. Though in its full extent the subject lies outside the scope of my report, I should wish to lay special stress in this connection upon the need which appears to exist for the closest co-operation between the Boards of National, Intermediate, and Technical Education, respectively. I have already had occasion to point out how desirable on grounds of economy and efficiency it is that the resources in the shape of work-rooms and Teachers already employed for the technical instruction of adults should be used to the utmost possible extent for the instruction of the children in Primary Schools in such subjects as Cookery and Laundry-work; and the same reasons apply with even more force to the training of Monitors and Teachers. In all towns, for example, where there is a Technical or Intermediate School possessing a laboratory, arrangements should be made if possible for its use for the instruction of the Monitors in Elementary Science. A good instance—the only one which came under my notice—of the advantages flowing from such co-ordination, is to be seen in the Queenstown Convent School, where the older scholars and Monitors of the Primary School are able to use at certain times an excellent laboratory provided primarily for the Secondary School in connection with the Convent.

273. The trend of educational legislation in England, as manifested in the Board of Education Act of 1899 and the recent Act of 1902 has been steadily in the direction of concentrating all grades of education under a single Central or Local Authority, in order to avoid the overlapping with its consequent waste of money and effort, which is the constant danger of a diversity of authorities. In the absence of any Local Authority in Ireland, it

appears to be specially necessary that the proceedings of any one of the Central Boards should be conducted with constant reference to the possibility of satisfying, without damage to its own aims, the needs of the other branches of education.

274. I must not conclude this report without expressing my thanks to the Resident Commissioner and the Inspectors and Officers of the Board of National Education for the kindness with which they placed their experience and information at my disposal. While they must not be held responsible for any of the opinions expressed in the report, the assistance which their knowledge enabled them to give was necessarily of the greatest value to me in the consideration of many of the questions discussed in it.

F. H. DALE,

H.M. Inspector of Schools.

BOARD OF EDUCATION, WHITEHALL,

September, 1903.

GENERAL SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

PREMISES.

Town Schools.

1. The premises of the Irish Town Schools are markedly inferior to those of the English both in the requirements essential for proper sanitation and in their convenience for purposes of effective teaching (pp. 2-4.).

2. This inferiority has been chiefly caused (i.) by excessive economy in building, (ii.) by the absence of a local authority, such as exists in England, responsible for the supply of Schools, and competent to raise rates for the purpose (pp. 6, 7).

3. The absence of such an authority has also led at once to (a) inordinate delay in the provision of suitable School buildings, and (b) serious waste of money owing to injudicious methods of expenditure (pp. 7, 8).

4. In order to bring the premises of these town Schools up to the English level it would be necessary (i.) to adopt better building plans for all new Schools; (ii.) to make considerable structural improvements in many existing Schools; (iii.) to establish local bodies with the power of rating and the responsibility for School supply (pp. 6, 7, 8).

Country Schools.

5. A majority of the Irish country Schools compare not unfavourably as regards the requirements essential for a School building with country Schools in England (pp. 4, 5).

6. The premises of a few of the Schools are extremely unsuitable and fall far below the standard of the worst English Schools (p. 5.)

7. The chief defects in buildings otherwise satisfactory are the want of cleanliness, the neglect of small repairs, and the insufficient heating (p. 5.)

8. Although the Irish building plans have failed to allow sufficient floor space per child according to English standards, this defect has been more than counter-balanced by the excess of accommodation over attendance in most country Schools (pp. 8, 9).

9. The enforcement of some checks upon this extravagant provision should precede the substitution of the English for the Irish regulation as to floor space (p. 9).

10. If these two measures were carried out the remaining problems as to the premises of country Schools would be (i.) the existence of a number of extremely unsuitable buildings, and (ii.) the neglect of cleaning and repairs in a majority of the others (p. 9).

11. The continued existence of the bad premises is partly due to the poverty of the Irish rural districts and partly to the want of suitable organisation for the distribution of State and local aid (p. 10).

12. Considerable improvement might be made by (i.) the allotment of State-aid according to the varying necessities of different districts: and (ii.) the establishment of Associations of Managers drawing local aid from a large area and distributing it according to necessity (pp. 10, 11).

13. The defects in the cleanliness and heating of many Irish country School buildings can be remedied only by fixing the responsibility for the condition of the Schools in these respects upon the Managers, and by arousing a general local interest in elementary education (pp. 11, 12, 13).

EQUIPMENT.

1. Most of the Irish Schools are tolerably well supplied with the absolutely necessary equipment for School work (pp. 13, 14). Supply of necessities.
2. As regards this necessary equipment, there are three main differences between the Irish and English systems, *i.e.*, (i.) in Irish Schools desks are provided for only one-half or two-thirds of the children instead of for all, and are frequently of an unsuitable kind; (ii.) books, etc., are bought by the children instead of being provided by the Managers; (iii.) slates are much more generally used (pp. 13, 14).
3. An improvement in the quality of the desks is much more important than an increase in the quantity; and such an improvement, together with the provision of a greater variety of books, are objects to which local funds might properly be applied (p. 14). Desirable changes.
4. In attractiveness of appearance and in all equipment other than necessities (putting aside the apparatus for special subjects provided by the Central Office), Irish Schools, with the exception of the Convent Schools, are extremely deficient when compared with English (p. 15). Deficiency of other equipment.
5. This deficiency is due partly to poverty, partly to the fact that public opinion in Ireland has not hitherto attached such importance to the maintenance of a high standard as regards the comfort and attractiveness of Primary Schools as in England, and that the attention of Irish Managers has only recently been directed to the necessity of remedying the existing defects in these points (pp. 15, 16).

STAFFING.

1. In the ordinary National Schools of Ireland the recognised Teachers fall into four classes, roughly corresponding to those which exist in England; but there are certain important differences in the conditions of their service (p. 16). General similarity.
2. In Ireland, unlike England, the Head Teacher of every School must be trained (p. 17). Differences.
3. This difference arises from the fact that a much larger proportion of Irish than of English Teachers are trained; a circumstance which naturally involves higher expenditure, but creates a strong presumption of greater efficiency (p. 17).
4. The Irish Rules governing the appointment of Assistant Teachers do not discriminate, as do the English, between trained Teachers and untrained ex-Monitors (p. 17).
5. The Irish Monitors, unlike the English Pupil Teachers, are not explicitly recognised as forming part of the staff of any School. In this respect the Irish practice is, on educational grounds, preferable to that adopted hitherto in England (p. 18).
6. Only such a supply of Monitors is therefore necessary in Ireland as will enable vacancies amongst the adult Teachers to be adequately filled (p. 18).
7. The Irish Monitors do not form the source of supply for the adult Teachers to the same extent as the English Pupil Teachers (p. 19).
8. The actual number of Monitors in Ireland is much in excess of the number required, and a considerable reduction might be made, especially amongst the girls (p. 19).

9. The rule limiting the selection of Monitors to pupils of the School where they are to be employed is unnecessary, and, on the whole, undesirable (p. 19).

10. Provision should be made in the Irish Code for shortening the term of service in the case of specially well qualified candidates (p. 20).

Head Teachers.

11. *Salaries.*—In England, owing to the existence of many large Schools, supported by wealthy localities, there is a considerably larger proportion than in Ireland of highly-paid posts for Primary Teachers (pp. 21, 22).

12. A proportion (about 15 to 20 per cent.) of Irish Teachers, who are often employed in very small Schools of a type rare in England, receive salaries less than the minimum paid to English Teachers (pp. 23, 24).

13. In the majority of Irish Schools, viz., those with an annual average attendance of 30 to 100 children, the salaries of Irish male Head Teachers will, under the Rules, be in general on a level with those hitherto paid to English Teachers in similarly circumstanced Schools, while the salaries of Irish female Teachers will be very frequently higher than those paid in England (pp. 23, 24, 25).

14. In the few large Irish Schools with an average attendance exceeding 100 scholars, the Teachers' salaries compare favourably with those obtained by English Teachers in charge of Schools of corresponding size in the rural districts and small towns, but unfavourably with those paid in English rate-aided Schools of the same size in great cities (pp. 25, 27).

15. The supply of qualified Teachers in Ireland is much in excess of the demand, and the competition to enter the profession of Primary Teacher is very keen (pp. 25, 26).

16. The Irish system of the payment and promotion of individual Head-Teachers compares unfavourably in its bearing on economy and efficiency with the English (pp. 28, *seq.*)

17. In Ireland the selection of Teachers for promotion rests primarily with the Inspectors of the Central Office and not with local Managers as in England. The proper performance of such a duty appears to be incompatible with the present position of Government Inspectors and to be likely to produce discontent among the Teachers (p. 29).

18. The arrangement under which all Irish Teachers begin at the lowest grade of salary, irrespective of the size of their School, is not just to the Teachers, and is not so well calculated to attract men and women of marked ability to the profession as the English system, under which the salary of a Teacher varies more directly according to the size of his School (pp. 29, 30).

19. The principle already contained in the Irish Rules of giving weight to the size of his School in determining a Teacher's salary might be extended further with advantage (pp. 30, 31).

20. The control, however, of the Central Office in Ireland over the appointment of Teachers by Managers should be stricter than in England, since no financial penalties fall upon Irish Managers in consequence of an unsuitable appointment (pp. 31, 32).

21. This end might be attained by regarding a Teacher appointed to the Headship of a fresh School as on probation for the first eighteen months of his appointment (p. 32).

Assistant Teachers.

22. The salaries of fully certificated or trained Assistants are distinctly lower in Ireland than in England, but the prospects of promotion to a Headship are greater, especially for men Teachers (p. 33).

23. The salaries of untrained Ex-Monitors have hitherto been higher in Ireland than in England owing to the fact that the Irish Rules do not discriminate between them and the trained Assistants (pp. 32, 33).

24. In future appointments such a discrimination might well be made (p. 33).

25. The salaries of Irish Monitors are considerably less than those of English Pupil-Teachers, owing largely to the much greater variety of occupations open to English boys and girls (p. 33).

INSTRUCTION.

1. The instruction in Irish Schools, when compared with English, is adversely affected by certain fundamental defects in the general conditions under which the Irish Schools work, viz.: (i.) the multiplication of small Schools, often unsuitably staffed and organised; (ii.) the lack of any local interest, except among the clergy, in Primary Education; (iii.) the inadequacy and faulty distribution of the staff in a large number of Schools; (iv.) the irregularity of the attendance of the scholars (p. 34).

2. The number of Elementary Schools in Ireland has steadily increased, though the population has diminished (pp. 34, 35). Multiplication of Schools.

3. This increase has taken the form of the establishment of separate Schools for (i.) Roman Catholics and Protestants; (ii.) different sects of Protestants; (iii.) children of different sex and age (pp. 35, 36).

4. It has led to a high rate of expenditure on Irish Schools without a corresponding measure of educational efficiency (pp. 35, 37, 38).

5. Some of the Schools are unnecessary, and in many of them the staffing and organisation are most unsuitable and extravagant; and the effects on the instruction—especially of the younger children—have been often disastrous. (pp. 37, 38, 40).

6. The primary cause of the multiplication of Schools has been the preference for a strictly denominational system of education. The object of the National School system in Ireland, has, therefore, not been achieved (pp. 38, 39).

7. This cause is the outcome of social conditions to which English experience presents no close parallel, and its consideration is inextricably bound up with questions of general policy falling outside the scope of my report (p. 39).

8. In addition to the operation of this cause, the Central Office in Ireland has not exercised such strict control over the supply and organisation of Schools as has been the case in England (pp. 39, 40).

9. Further, the system under which the State grant in Ireland takes, as a rule, the form of the payment in full of the salaries of individual Teachers, instead of a Capitation Grant on the attendance, as in England, has facilitated the multiplication of unnecessary Schools (pp. 41, 42).

10. Under that system the powers possessed by Irish Managers have been divorced from any adequate financial responsibility, while the Central Office has been over-burdened with the supervision of details, and its administration has been necessarily rigid and inelastic (pp. 42, 43, 44).

11. Except amongst the Clergy, little or no local interest is manifested in the Primary Schools in Ireland, whereas improvements in all branches of English Primary Education have been largely due to the wider interest in the subject among various classes of the community (p. 44). Lack of local interest.

12. This lack of local interest in Ireland is due in part to the failure of the present system of State-aid to devolve any financial responsibility on the locality or to provide such inducements to persons of position and education to take a part in the work of School management, as exist in England (pp. 45, 46).

13. The Convent Schools, to which State-aid is given in the form of a Capitation grant on the attendance, are both less expensive to the State and better managed than the ordinary National Schools (p. 45).

14. In order to create any wider local interest in the Schools, it would appear necessary to group them under some responsible authority to which the distribution of the State-grant could be entrusted subject to supervision by the Central Office (p. 46).

15. Pending the devolution of more adequate financial responsibility on the locality, the Central Office in Ireland must exercise closer supervision over the supply and organisation of Schools than is necessary in England (p. 47).

16. For this purpose more complete information as to the exact amount and character of the School accommodation already provided in each town and district of Ireland than is afforded by the present Returns of the Board of National Education should be compiled. An Annual Return giving the necessary particulars should be prepared and submitted by the Board to the Irish Government and the Treasury (p. 47).

17. The Rules of the Board should be so amended and amplified as to give it greater powers for the discontinuance of aid to unnecessary Schools and Departments, and to enable it to control more effectively the character of the organisation and staffing of any School (pp. 47, 48).

Inadequacy and
faulty distribution
of the staff.

18. The staff in many Irish Schools of 40 to 50 children is inadequate when compared with similarly circumstanced English Schools (pp. 48, 49).

19. In order to remedy this defect Rule 155(b) of the Commissioners' Regulations should be so amended as to allow the employment of a Manual Instructress in all such Schools (pp. 51, 52).

20. The staff of Irish Schools with an average attendance of 60 scholars or over is, in some cases, on a much more liberal scale than that adopted in similarly circumstanced English Schools; but the staff of various Schools is rendered unduly weak by the non-employment of trained Assistants in them (pp. 50, 51).

21. The Rules of the Board should be so amended as to ensure a more equal distribution of the trained Assistants among the larger Irish Schools (p. 52).

Staff of Convent
Schools.

22. The staff of Convent Schools much exceeds in number that of English Primary Schools, though the noncertificated Assistants employed are not always efficient Teachers (pp. 52, 53).

Irregularity of
attendance.

23. The attendance of children at School is not compulsory in many parts of Ireland, and is more irregular than in England—especially in the rural districts (pp. 53, 54).

24. The chief causes of this difference are the greater poverty of the population, the more inclement weather, especially in the West of Ireland, and the more widely spread indifference to education among the parents (pp. 53, 56).

25. The introduction of compulsory attendance in the larger towns of Ireland has been, on the whole, beneficial (p. 56).

26. The limitation imposed by Irish legislation—but not by English—as to the number of days per year during which a child is bound to attend School has a tendency to impair proper regularity of attendance (p. 56).

27. The fines for wilful breach of the law are not so high in Ireland as in England, and are often too low to be effective (p. 56).

28. It appears to be doubtful whether the introduction of compulsory attendance at School throughout the rural districts of Ireland is at present desirable; but, in any case, the provisions of the existing law and the Rules of the Commissioners are not sufficiently elastic to meet the needs of those districts (p. 57).

29. The system under which State-aid is granted to Primary Education in England offers direct financial inducement to the locality to improve the attendance of children at School. This is not the case under the existing system in Ireland (p. 58).

30. The attendance in rural districts in Ireland might be improved if arrangements could be made for the conveyance of children to School in covered carts. This arrangement has been adopted with success in a few districts in England (p. 58).

31. The relations between the Inspectors of the Central Office in Ireland and the local attendance authorities might with advantage be closer than they have hitherto been (p. 58).

32. The discipline in the ordinary Irish Schools compares unfavourably with that of similarly circumstanced English Schools (pp. 59, 62).

33. This difference is due partly to the unsuitability of the premises of Irish town Schools for the purposes of School-work, partly to the faulty organisation adopted in teaching various subjects (pp. 59, 62).

Discipline, instruction, and curriculum of ordinary Irish Schools.

34. The instruction in ordinary Irish Schools compares favourably with that of similar English Schools in point of accuracy, but very unfavourably in point of intelligence of method and aim (pp. 59, seq., 62).

35. For this difference the longer continuance in Ireland of the system of "payment by results," and the narrowness of the Curriculum prior to 1900, are chiefly responsible (p. 59, seq.)

36. The reforms made by the Revised Programme of 1900 are calculated to remedy the defects in instruction, but in order that those reforms may be fully carried out, the Inspectors of the Board should, like the English Inspectors, be relieved from the work of annually examining every School, and more detailed guidance should be given by the Board to Teachers, especially in the methods of training infants, and the subjects of Arithmetic, Geography and History (pp. 67, 68, 69).

37. The introduction of Singing, Drawing, Object Lessons, and Physical Exercises, as essential elements of the Primary School Curriculum in Ireland, has been most beneficial, and the State-grants for equipment, etc., in those subjects have decidedly increased the efficiency of the instruction (pp. 70, 71).

38. The order and tone of the Convent Schools are excellent, and the instruction, as a whole, is distinctly superior to that given in the ordinary National Schools; and in various subjects, especially Reading, Needlework, Singing and Physical Exercises compares very favourably with that given in large English Schools (pp. 65, 66, 71).

Convent Schools.

39. Effective instruction in Hand-and-Eye Training for the older children is, under existing circumstances, impracticable in the vast majority of Irish Schools, and the Syllabus of that subject should be withdrawn for the present (pp. 71, 72, 73).

Hand and Eye training.

Elementary
Science.

40. Of the alternative Courses prescribed in Elementary Science, Course II., with certain modifications, appears to be the best suited to the circumstances of the majority of Irish Schools (pp. 73, 74, 75, 76).

41. The instruction in Cookery has greatly promoted the utility and popularity of the education given in Irish National Schools (p. 76).

Cookery.

42. In England a special grant is made by the State towards the expense of instruction in this subject. This course might, with advantage, be followed in Ireland (p. 76).

43. In point of economy, the existing arrangements for Cookery-instruction in the town-schools of Ireland compare unfavourably with those adopted in similar English Schools, owing to the absence of Central Classes for such instruction (pp. 77, 78).

Training of
Monitors.

44. The education of the Irish Monitors is very defective when compared with that given to a large number of the English Pupil-Teachers: and the State expenditure on Training Colleges in Ireland is thereby rendered much more unprofitable than it should be (pp. 79, 80).

45. This difference in efficiency is due partly to the faulty Syllabus hitherto prescribed for the instruction of the Monitors: but chiefly to the want of any such organised provision for their instruction in classes under well-qualified Teachers as exists in England (p. 79 seq.)

46. The formation of such classes in Ireland is an urgent need of Primary Education: and any funds at the disposal of the State might be most usefully applied to this purpose (pp. 83, 84).

47. In any arrangements made for the proper training of Monitors, or for the instruction of Teachers and scholars in Primary Schools in such subjects as Cookery, Manual Work, Elementary Science, there should be the closest co-operation between the Boards of National, Intermediate, and Technical Education (p. 84).

APPENDIX I.

The Model Schools.

1. The Model Schools are conducted on a system unknown in England, since they have been built and are supported exclusively by the Board of National Education out of State funds. The Teachers are appointed and dismissed by the Commissioners, and the Inspector of the district in which a Model School is situated is the Manager of it in all details, subject to the control of the Central Office. The number of such Schools, according to the Report for 1901-2, was thirty, and they comprised seventy-five separate departments, each with its own staff and organisation. Under Rule 111 "the chief objects of Model Schools are to promote united education, to exhibit to the surrounding Schools the most improved methods of literary and scientific instruction, and to educate young persons for the office of Teacher." For the accomplishment of this last object, a special class of Teacher, entitled Pupil Teachers, exists in these Schools, in addition to the Monitors ordinarily employed. These Pupil-Teachers are, as a rule, between sixteen and twenty years of age; they are selected by examination, and serve generally for two years. Male Pupil-Teachers, in certain of the Model Schools, are lodged and boarded in the Headmaster's residence at the expense of the Commissioners, an allowance at the rate of £26 a year each being granted to the Headmaster. In the case of non-resident Pupil-Teachers an allowance at the same rate is made to each individually. The Central Office also makes small grants towards the cost of books and travelling; and awards gratuities to an amount not exceeding 30s. in the first year of service, and 46 in the second, to every Pupil-Teacher whose conduct and proficiency in study and teaching are satisfactory. (Rules 126-129.)

2. The time at my disposal did not allow me to visit all the Model Schools; but such a lengthy investigation and report upon them, as that course, if practicable, would have involved, appeared, for the following reasons, to be unnecessary at the present time.

3. In the first place, a full description of the situation and premises of nearly all the Model Schools, a statement of the cost of their erection and an exhaustive account of the reasons which led to their foundation and of their history down to 1867, were given by Messrs. Cowe and Stokes in their special Report on the Model Schools for the Powis Commission (Vol. II. of the Report, pp. 726-797, and pp. 816-835). A detailed inquiry into the circumstances of each of the Model Schools would have consisted very largely of a mere recapitulation of the facts already recorded in that Report.

4. In the second place, the problems connected with the Model Schools have been much simplified by certain changes recently made in the Commissioners' Regulations affecting them. Prior to the introduction of the Revised Programme in 1900, the salaries and number of the Teachers employed in a Model School were regulated on a scale much more liberal than that applicable to ordinary National Schools. This practice, however, has now been abolished; and the observations already made in the body of my Report as to the principles upon which the salaries of the staff in Irish Schools, and their distribution among the Schools are regulated, will thus be generally applicable to the working of the Model Schools in future.

5. I shall, therefore, limit my remarks in this excursus to the following questions:—
(i.) How far the Model Schools that I visited, when judged by English standards in respect of their premises, equipment, and instruction, may be considered as fulfilling the purposes indicated by their name, and affording a model of what primary education should be; (ii.) whether any advantage is derived from the presence of Pupil-Teachers in them; (iii.) what causes have led to the great excess of expenditure upon the maintenance of certain of the Model Schools over that incurred by the most expensive English Primary Schools.

6. The premises of the Model Schools, as might be expected, are satisfactory in respect of all requirements necessary for proper sanitation. They are well lighted, ventilated, cleaned, and heated. They are provided with excellent playgrounds, and in external appearance they are, in such towns as Galway, Sligo, and Omagh, among the most attractive and imposing of the public buildings of the place.

7. Notwithstanding these excellences, it is quite impossible to regard their buildings as models of what a School-building should be in order to satisfy modern requirements. The criticism which must be passed on the large ordinary Schools in the towns of Ireland is equally applicable to the Model Schools. The insufficiency of their classrooms, and the consequent necessity of instructing a very large number of children in one room, render them fundamentally unsuitable for purposes of effective organisation and teaching. This defect is naturally not felt in the cases where the number of children attending a Model School is small; but it is to be seen in all cases where the Schools are full. In the Belfast Model Boys' School, for example, there are only three classrooms for a School of 547 boys, whereas in a modern English Primary School there would be at least eight; over 200 of the scholars are taught in a single large room. A similar instance is furnished by the Central Model Schools in Dublin. The disadvantages attendant upon such an arrangement of the premises have been already pointed out on pages 2 and 62 of my Report.

8. The premises of the Model Schools, in short, are the best examples of the old type of School-building, which has been largely superseded in England by buildings erected on the plan of giving a separate class-room to each Teacher. The superiority of this plan is now universally admitted, and the buildings of any ordinary National School, hereafter erected in accordance with it, will be far more worthy of the title of a Model School than any of the buildings of the existing Model Schools.

9. The Model Schools are well furnished and equipped, being much superior in these respects to the ordinary National School, and the appearance of the rooms is very creditable to the Teachers. They do not, however, excel the best of the Convent Schools that I saw; nor do they reach the level attained by a few of the rate-aided Primary Schools in such English cities as London, Bristol, or Nottingham. Some of the class-rooms in the Model Schools are still furnished with galleries, cumbersome and inconvenient in shape, and unprovided with hooks, instead of the desks which in England have replaced galleries, save in some of the older Schools. The pictures and illustrations, also, are not so artistic as in many large English Schools; while there are at present no such rooms for Manual Instruction or Laboratories, as exist in the Higher Grade or Higher Elementary Schools in England.

10. The pupils in the Model Schools are, as a rule, drawn from a much more prosperous class of society than those in ordinary Irish Schools. They attend with much greater regularity—the percentage of average attendance to the average number on rolls being, for the whole of the Model Schools, 73 in 1902, as against 65·1 for all National Schools, and they remain at School longer—usually till fourteen or fifteen years of age. Further, the exceptionally high salaries offered in the past have tended to attract able Teachers, while the staffing has been specially liberal. For example, it appears from a return referring to the 31st December, 1900, that the staff of the Cork Model Girls' School, with an average attendance of 93 pupils, consisted of the Headmistress, two certificated Assistants, and four Pupil-Teachers and Monitors; that of the Clonmel Female School, with an average attendance of 45, of the Head-Teacher, a certificated Assistant, and one Junior Teacher. The existing Regulations will bring about a modification of these conditions in the future; but, at the date of my visit, the changes made were still too recent to have affected many of the Schools. In the Athy Mixed School there are still five Teachers (Principal Teacher, one Assistant, and three Pupil-Teachers) for an average attendance of 47 children; in the Londonderry Model Girls' School, eight teachers (Principal Teacher, two certificated Assistants, and five Pupil-Teachers) for an average attendance of 111 children. It need hardly be said that in point of numbers such a staff is distinctly above that hitherto granted even to the best English Primary Schools.

11. In view of the conditions described in the preceding paragraph it is not surprising that the order and instruction of the pupils in the Model Schools that I visited—especially those at Belfast, Londonderry, and Cork—are decidedly above the level reached in the average Irish National School. The scholars are well-behaved, and, considering the difficulties presented by the inconvenient premises of the large Schools, the discipline is creditable. Reading and Composition—in both which subjects the influence and tastes of a good home tell most strongly—are much better than is usual in Ireland; while the children have more knowledge of Geography and History. In some of the Schools that I visited, the Singing and Drawing were well done, though these subjects nowhere reached same level of excellence as is seen in the best Convent Schools.

12. The curriculum for some of the children, especially the boys, in the top classes, is more extensive in various Model Schools than that in the ordinary National Schools, the extra subjects taken being such as Mathematics (Algebra and Euclid), Latin, French, Typewriting, and Shorthand. The instruction in the first three of these subjects is usually given outside the ordinary school hours, in accordance with the regulation under which special fees may then be paid to the Teacher. A few of the scholars, I found upon enquiry, proceed, subsequently, to Intermediate or Higher Schools.

13. Of these subjects, so far as I had opportunities of judging, the Mathematics was distinctly the most successful; and the instruction was very creditable to the teachers. In languages the ground covered is small, and it cannot be said that the scholars acquire more than a smattering. In the Galway Model Boys' School, for example, the scholars were unable to put into French some very simple English sentences which I gave them. In some cases the paucity of result is due to the excessive number of extra subjects which scholars are learning. Thus, at Sligo, I found a few boys attempting Latin, French, Typewriting, and Mathematics, as well as all the ordinary subjects of the curriculum. Further, the time devoted to languages is not sufficient to give any real grasp of them; with only two lessons a week of half-an-hour each—which is as much time as can be generally given to either Latin or French in the Model Schools—a boy cannot reasonably be expected to make any great progress. The system, also, under which these subjects are taught in detachment from the ordinary School-work, is not so well calculated to ensure efficiency, as a system under which they form an integral part of the curriculum, and the whole instruction can be deliberately organised and co-ordinated for the purpose of giving a secondary education.

14. But though the education given in the Model Schools is superior to that in the average National School, it cannot be said, in any adequate sense, that they afford Models of primary education. None of the Model Schools for older scholars that I saw was better than the best ordinary National Schools that I visited; the Cork Model Boys'

School, for example, does not reach a higher standard of efficiency than the St. Luke's National School in Cork, or the Leamy National School in Limerick. The Model Schools having but a small attendance, to judge both by my own experience at Sligo and Galway, and by the information furnished by the Inspectors, are, at times, distinctly less efficient than the best ordinary Schools. Thus, in the Quay-street Senior School, under the Marist Brothers at Sligo, the proficiency of the scholars in all the essential subjects of the curriculum is greater than in the Model Boys' School.

Similarly, the best of the Model Girls' and Infants' Schools are conducted with great care and skill—notably, those at Omagh, Cork, and Belfast; but they certainly do not reach a higher level of excellence than such ordinary Schools as the Mayo-street Infants' National School or the best Convent Schools.

15. Again, the defects in the methods of instruction, upon which I have commented at length in the body of my Report, are to be found in the Model Schools, since they have been no more exempt than the ordinary Schools from the influences of a vicious system of examination. The system of entrusting small drafts of scholars to Pupil-Teachers and Monitors for instruction in Reading and Arithmetic is prevalent, and the inevitable disadvantages which I have already described as attendant upon it can be found even in the best Model Schools. Thus, in the Belfast Model Boys' School—which impressed me as an ably-conducted institution—the Arithmetic, in point of intelligence, is much below the standard attained in any ordinary good Primary School in an English city; nor is the Composition, as yet, so good as that produced in English Schools of similar size and importance. Similarly, the teaching in Geography and History in the Model Schools is neither so original in method nor so stimulating and fruitful as that in the best English Schools. It is still too much on the lines familiar to the Teachers under the former examination system.

16. To sum up—the Model Schools, so far as the efficiency of the instruction given in them is concerned, do not, in my judgment, stand clearly out as a distinctive class of School in Irish Primary Education, as their title might have led one to suppose. At their best, they are on the same plane of excellence as the best ordinary National and the best Convent Schools; at their worst, they are less efficient than many good National Schools. Both the merits and defects of the education which they impart may be seen as clearly in other Schools; and they therefore cannot be said at present to exhibit ideals of primary teaching unknown in Ireland outside themselves.

The Pupil-Teachers in the Model Schools.

17. There are, approximately, 180 Pupil-Teachers employed in the Model Schools, at a cost of somewhat over £3,000 per annum.

18. It was originally intended by the Commissioners that the Pupil-Teachers in the District Model Schools should form the source of supply for the students in the Central Training Establishment in Dublin. This plan, however, has been never carried out. The Pupil-Teachers have to compete for admission to the Training Colleges on the same footing as other candidates, and, in order to be classed as trained Teachers, they must undergo a course of training of exactly the same length and character as ordinary Monitors.

19. The Pupil-Teachers whom I saw did not, in fact, differ in any way from Monitors of the same age in ordinary or Model Schools. They were not necessarily more efficient as Teachers; and the final examination for which they prepare, and the course of studies which they accordingly pursue, are the same as those for Monitors. They are drawn from the same class of society, having usually been pupils, and in some cases, Monitors in National Schools, before becoming Pupil-Teachers.

20. Further, their training in the art of teaching by the Head-Teachers is on lines not different from those followed with Monitors in ordinary Schools, and their opportunities for observation and practice of good methods of teaching are no better, as my description of the Model Schools will have shown, than those afforded to Monitors in the better National and Convent Schools. On the contrary, apprenticeship in a Model School, as was pointed out by Messrs. Cowie and Stokes in their Report, is in certain respects an unsatisfactory test of the capacity of a candidate for the post of Primary Teacher. The conditions under which the Teachers work in these Schools are exceptionally favourable. In the ordinary Schools, where the Pupil-Teachers may be expected to teach afterwards, the children come from poor homes, and the attendance is irregular; in the Model Schools these difficulties are but little felt. There is clearly much force in the contention that "the scene of preparatory training ought to resemble an ordinary School," and that it is not by eliminating the special difficulties, with which the vast majority of Irish Teachers have to struggle, that a candidate for the post of Primary Teacher can gain a real experience of the work lying before him and test his aptitude for it.

21. In any case, it is to be observed that whatever the value of the training given by the State to these Pupil-Teachers, it has been largely wasted. From a return made in 1901 it appears that out of 388 Pupil-Teachers trained during the five years ending 31st July, 1900, 37 per cent. did not adopt the teaching profession. Since that date, I understand, matters have somewhat improved in this respect, but there is still a considerable leakage.

22. There does not, accordingly, appear to be any reason of sufficient weight to justify the existence of this special class of Teacher in the Model Schools. No educational advantage is secured, either to the Pupil-Teachers themselves or to the Schools, which cannot be obtained equally well under the ordinary monitorial system. If that system

is amended by shortening the length of apprenticeship in selected cases, as I have proposed in my Report, the needs of boys and girls of sixteen years of age, who may desire to enter the teaching profession, will be fully satisfied, and the maintenance of a class of Pupil-Teachers, which, up to the present, has alone met the case of such candidates, and might, therefore, be defended on that ground, will become altogether unnecessary.

The Cost of the Model Schools.

23. The net expenditure incurred in maintaining the Model Schools out of the National Education Vote (excluding the expenditure by the Board of Works on repairs, &c.), amounted, in 1902, to £20,732 10s. 5d., the cost to the State of each pupil in average attendance being thus over £4 10s. In individual cases the cost far exceeds this. The cost of the Model School at Athy in 1902 was over £7 per head, while at Clonmel, Ennisceorthy, Kilkenny, and Waterford, it was over £8.

24. The cost of the Model Schools is thus not only far higher than that of the ordinary National Irish Schools or the Convent Schools, which only cost the State from £1 5s. to £3 10s. per head; but it is actually above the cost incurred by the wealthiest English School Boards. The average expenditure from taxes and rates for maintenance (including the upkeep of the building) per pupil in average attendance in the Board Schools of the English County Boroughs was £3 7s. 7d.; even in London, where many reasons contribute to render the maintenance of Schools exceptionally expensive, it only reached £4 1s. 3d.

25. One main cause for this serious difference of expenditure in Ireland and England has been the exceptionally high rate of salaries and liberal scale of staff granted to the Model Schools by the State. The average cost of the teaching staff per pupil in average attendance in the Model Schools was, in 1902, £4 7s. 7d.; in the London Board Schools it was, in 1901-2, £3 2s. 10d.; in the Board Schools in the English County Boroughs, £2 12s. 8d. Under the new Rules of the Commissioners, by which the Model Schools, in the number and payment of their staff, will be ultimately assimilated to the ordinary Irish Schools, this part of the difference in expenditure will be rectified; and it is therefore unnecessary to do more than point out that the more lavish expenditure on them has not been successful in producing a superior education to that provided at a less cost in England, or, indeed, in other Schools in Ireland itself.

26. It is, however, to be observed that, in any case the cost of many of the Model Schools is bound to be higher than that of other Schools in Ireland or England, so long as they continue to be as sparsely attended as at present. It is well known that they have absolutely failed in one of their chief objects—the promotion of the united education of children of all creeds. Since the Synod of Thurles, in 1850, the Roman Catholic Hierarchy have always expressed the strongest objection to the system of State-management and the necessarily undenominational character of these Schools. In consequence of their action the only Model Schools attended by any considerable number of Roman Catholic scholars are those in Dublin, Cork, and Trim. In no less than eleven Model Schools there were, in 1902, no Roman Catholic pupils at all; and in the others the number did not exceed twenty-five, and generally fell below ten.

27. In the districts of Ireland, where the population is predominantly Protestant, the Schools are fairly full. In Belfast there are 826 scholars in average attendance; in Londonderry, 438, in Omagh, 325. The contrast with the Schools situated among a Roman Catholic population may be seen by the instances given in the following table—

RETURN giving particulars regarding the undermentioned Model Schools and the Protestant National Schools in the same localities.

NAME.		MODEL SCHOOLS		PROTESTANT NATIONAL SCHOOLS*		
		Accommoda- tion.	Average Attendance, 1902.	Number of Schools.	Accommoda- tion.	Average Attendance, 1902.
Athy, . . .	Mixed,	479	47	—	—	—
Belfast, . .	Male,	174	86	1	67	31
Do., . . .	Female,	168	34	—	—	—
Clonmel, . .	Male,	900	33	1	146	23
Do., . . .	Female,	184	54	—	—	—
Dunmurry, .	Male,	233	27	—	—	—
Do., . . .	Female,	125	45	—	—	—
Ennisceorthy, .	Male,	110	22	—	—	—
Do., . . .	Female,	222	49	—	—	—
Kilkenny, . .	Mixed,	615	51	—	—	—
Waterford, .	Male,	369	39	2	251	67
Do., . . .	Female,	353	68	—	—	—
Parsonstown, .	Male,	134	21	—	—	—
Do., . . .	Female,	138	54	—	—	—

* N.B.—Accommodations calculated at the rate of 8 square feet for each pupil in attendance.

* As regards the Protestant Non-National Schools, no information can be given as to accommodation; as that no reference thereto is included in this Return.

28. The State is thus maintaining as Schools for some 50 to 100 children buildings designed to accommodate 250 to 700; even in cases where, as at Waterford and Clonmel, there is ample available accommodation for all the Protestant children of the locality in other National Schools. The difference in expenditure, which must appear upon a comparison of the cost of these Schools, either with ordinary Irish Schools or English Schools, is obvious; and its expediency must be considered open to the gravest question in view of the fact that the education given in such small Model Schools is no better than, and in some cases, not so good as, that given in the best ordinary Schools.

29. If, therefore, a large, and, in many cases, unproductive, expenditure on Model Schools is to be avoided in the future, there appear to be only two courses for the Irish Government to adopt. Either such radical changes in the constitution and management of the Schools must be made as will remove the objections entertained by the Roman Catholic Hierarchy to them; or the unsuccessful Schools situated in the districts occupied by a predominantly Roman Catholic population must be gradually discontinued. Whether the former of these alternatives is practicable is not a question on which I am competent to form an opinion; but the following observations may be made on the other alternative, which was the course recommended by the Powis Commission in their Report.

30. In some cases, e.g., at Waterford and Clonmel, there appears to be ample accommodation for the few children at present attending the Model Schools, in ordinary Schools in the locality. In all such cases the Model Schools could clearly be discontinued, without impeding the continued education of the children in them, if the staff of the Schools to which the scholars were transferred were duly augmented so as to cope with the increased numbers. It will, of course, be necessary to refer to the Inspectors and Officers of the Board of National Education, in order to obtain advice as to the exact number of cases in which such transference is immediately practicable, and the precise changes advisable in the staffing of the ordinary Schools in the district.

The buildings of the Model Schools could then be sold, leased, or otherwise disposed of, as the Irish Government and the Treasury may find desirable after inquiry. I may observe that, though some of the rooms in these buildings, owing to their size and planning, are not well fitted for ordinary School-work, they could frequently be converted into excellent Laboratories, Manual Instruction rooms, or Cookery centres.

31. In cases where, as at Athy, Dunmanway, and Kilkenny, the Model School at present forms the only available School for Protestant children, the State might either reserve part of the building for their use, while leasing the remaining rooms for educational or other purposes; or, if the whole building could be disposed of on sufficiently advantageous terms, it might, out of the funds so obtained, provide a new building free of charge for any Local Committee which would undertake to carry it on as an ordinary National School, and to bear the same expenses of its annual maintenance as already fall on Managers whose School-premises are vested in the Commissioners. As the new School which the State would have to provide would, in most cases, be but small, e.g., for some 50 to 100 children, there should still remain a considerable balance of gain to the Treasury.

32. About a third of the Model Schools stand on a different footing from those to which the two preceding paragraphs refer. The Schools situated in the North of Ireland, e.g., at Belfast, Londonderry, Omagh, as well as those at Dublin, have been able to attract 300 to 1,000 scholars, and have accordingly fulfilled the primary condition, which alone can render their successful working possible. Their popularity among the Protestant population is undoubted; and their continuance does not involve the same inevitable waste of public money as that of the small Schools in the South and West of Ireland. In the event of a responsible local authority being hereafter established in the large towns of Ireland, the detailed management of the Model School or Schools in its area would naturally be entrusted to it, the State providing the buildings rent free, and the locality, in return, bearing the annual expense of their up-keep, in accordance with the proposals of the Powis Commission.

33. It is also, I think, worthy of consideration whether these Schools, if organised in certain respects on different principles from those hitherto adopted, might not ultimately play a valuable part in the system of Irish primary education.

I have already alluded to the fact that in many ordinary Schools in Irish towns there are to be found some ten or a dozen scholars of fourteen to sixteen years of age, who, owing, in some cases, to their inability to obtain employment, in other cases to the greater prosperity of their homes, remain in the top class of their School for two or three years. For these scholars the ordinary School can do but little. They are too few to be organised as a separate class, with a curriculum of its own, and the lack of any system of scholarships for the poorer classes prevents them from passing into a Secondary School. Systematic instruction of them under existing conditions is impossible; for the greater part of the School-time they repeat the work of the Sixth Standard, which they have already passed in previous years, though they occasionally add some extra subject, such as Mathematics, or do more advanced work in ordinary subjects by themselves, with such limited supervision as the Head Teacher, amid the multifarious claims on his time, can afford to give.

With these pupils may be ranked scholars drawn from what may be termed the lower middle-class, the children of the more prosperous farmers and shopkeepers, and the poorer professional men, whose parents can afford to keep them longer at School, and to give them a somewhat higher education than the ordinary Primary School can provide. These children

largely attend the Model Schools, or Schools conducted on similar lines, such as the St. Luke's School, at Cork. In this School high fees, amounting to 10s. a quarter, are charged. A special Teacher is employed for French, and the Headmaster is a graduate of Trinity College. Though nominally a Primary School under the Board, it is, in reality, a School providing an education intermediate between the Primary and Secondary Schools.

For both these classes of scholars the education given in a Secondary School is hardly of the type required. They do not propose, save in exceptional cases, to proceed to a University, or to enter the professions; and accordingly, instruction in Latin, Greek, the Higher Mathematics, or even advanced Science, is not of direct value to them. They leave School at fifteen or sixteen years of age to enter business or the lower ranks of the Civil Service; and, if they continue their education, they will naturally attend Technical Classes rather than a University.

34. I cannot but think that a nucleus for the organised supply of the kind of education required to meet the needs of these older scholars, might be found in some of the more prosperous Model Schools. Hitherto, these Schools have failed in this end, since their syllabus of instruction, their methods, their examinations, have been, in the main, the same as those of ordinary Schools. The extra subjects taken in them have not, as a rule, been chosen on any definite principle, and have been, so to speak, patched on to the ordinary subjects, instead of being interwoven with them, so as to form an organised and consistent curriculum.

In order to make these Schools fulfil the same purpose as is fulfilled in England by the Higher Elementary Schools, and in France by the Higher Primary Schools, it would be necessary, in the first place, to reduce the number of younger children in them, and to turn them explicitly into Schools for older children of eleven to fifteen or sixteen years of age. The accommodation thus gained would allow some of the large rooms in them to be fitted up for instruction in Elementary Science, Woodwork, or Cookery. In the second place, their curriculum would have to be regulated by a syllabus different from that laid down for the ordinary Primary Schools. It would, naturally, include more advanced instruction in English, History and Geography, and a more adequate training in Drawing, Experimental Science, and Manual Work, than is given at present. For the older girls, systematic instruction in Domestic subjects would form an integral part of the curriculum; while boys intended for business could substitute instruction in one modern language for the Manual Work. Any such scheme, it is clear, differs in essential respects from the scheme of instruction for either a Primary or Secondary School.

35. Such Schools could properly charge fees to the majority of their scholars; but an adequate supply of free places could be reserved for children of the poorer classes, who would be transferred from the ordinary Schools to these Higher Schools at the age of eleven or twelve years. In order to ensure that the scholars so transferred should be capable of profiting by a higher education, they might be selected by the Inspector, after consultation with the Manager and Head-Teacher of their School.

36. Any re-organisation of a Model School on the lines which I have sketched, would be only possible after detailed consideration by the expert advisers of the Board of National Education; and I am aware that, in the course of such consideration, insuperable objections to the plan of transforming it into a Higher Primary School for older children might emerge. But my enquiries left no doubt in my mind that, in the character of the education hitherto open to boys and girls of the lower middle-class, and in the opportunities for clever children of the poorest classes to rise beyond the Primary School, Ireland compares very unfavourably with either England or Scotland. The gravity of this defect is unquestionable, especially as the native ability of some of the older scholars in the poorest National Schools is of a very high order, and should, if properly trained, fit them for very much better positions in life than, owing to the lack of opportunities for a good education, they are at present able to obtain.

APPENDIX II.

TABLE showing for a series of years the demand for New Teachers and the supply of Trained Teachers; and the means of supplying the deficiency.

Year.	Demand.									Supply.			DEFICIENCY OF SUPPLY FROM TRAINING CHARGES.			SOURCES FROM WHICH THE DEFICIENCY IS MET.			
	Primary Schools.			Assistantships.			Total Number of Vacancies.			Number of Two Year Term's Scholars Trained.						Number of Fifth Year Teachers (Ordinary-Schools) who did not enter a Training College.	Number of Fourth Year Teachers (Ordinary-Schools) who did not enter a Training College.	Number of provisionally certificated Teachers.	Total untrained Casual demand for Teacher-ships.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.							
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.				
1885	126	108	234	125	152	277	251	308	559	84	89	173	165	155	320	574	70	319	304
1886	108	118	226	101	146	247	207	276	473	76	117	193	121	147	278	470	85	358	306
1887	126	232	358	55	123	178	287	343	630	85	102	191	135	143	278	520	74	317	531
1888	179	129	308	105	154	259	330	379	709	91	119	210	151	150	301	472	129	55	719
1889	102	115	217	122	142	264	264	330	594	117	115	232	107	142	249	447	155	52	533
1890	88	91	179	117	117	234	186	275	461	125	125	250	61	102	213	327	155	48	483
1891	61	106	167	120	132	252	252	282	534	119	120	239	113	112	225	538	155	33	715
1892	83	111	194	125	173	298	260	336	596	120	112	232	77	112	249	565	27	13	517
1893	95	105	200	115	109	224	243	268	512	171	121	292	75	117	249	431	80	17	508
1894	75	116	191	124	115	239	263	289	552	128	123	251	89	120	249	542	27	23	592
1895	51	103	154	119	155	274	213	333	546	177	145	322	34	142	176	370	22	16	605
1896	52	106	158	103	150	253	242	309	551	180	150	330	66	137	260	732	34	3	535
1897	50	114	164	124	115	239	263	289	552	159	171	330	65	129	187	775	48	3	526
1898	67	147	214	145	225	370	215	355	570	173	175	348	65	125	250	735	28	2	536
1899	55	121	176	151	280	431	297	327	624	180	181	361	2	10	52	543	12	2	545

APPENDIX III.

The following Table exhibits for the last fifteen years—(a) the number of National Schools in operation, (b) the average number of pupils on the Rolls, (c) the average daily attendance, and (d) the per-centage of the latter to the average number on the Rolls—

Year.	Number of Schools in operation.	Average Number of Pupils on Rolls.	Average Daily Attendance.	Per-centage of Average Daily Attendance to Average Number on Rolls.
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
1888	8,196	845,433	493,888	58.3
1889	8,251	839,608	507,845	60.5
1890	8,298	828,520	480,144	58.0
1891	8,346	824,818	506,536	61.4
1892	8,403	815,972	495,254	60.7
1893	8,459	832,545	527,060	63.3
1894	8,505	832,821	525,547	63.1
1895	8,557	826,046	519,515	62.9
1896	8,606	815,348	534,957	65.6
1897	8,651	816,001	521,141	63.9
1898	8,691	808,467	518,799	64.2
1899	8,670	796,183	513,882	64.5
1900	8,684	770,622	478,224	62.0
1901	8,692	754,028	482,031	63.9
1902	8,712	747,864	487,098	65.1

APPENDIX IV.

TABLE showing for each province in Ireland the number of Schools in 1867 and 1901, respectively, which were attended by both Roman Catholic and Protestant pupils, and the percentage which that number forms of the total number of Schools in the province.

1867.

Provinces	Total Number of Schools in Province.	Number of Schools attended by both Denominations	Percentage of Total Number of Schools.
Ulster, ...	2,406	1,647	68.1
Munster, ...	1,592	443	27.6
Leinster, ...	1,480	479	32.3
Connanght, ...	1,042	378	36.2

1901.

Provinces.	Total Number of Schools in Province.	Number of Schools attended by both Denominations.	Percentage of Total Number of Schools.
Ulster, ...	3,256	1,474	45.2
Munster, ...	2,113	560	26.5
Leinster, ...	1,796	593	33
Connanght, ...	1,527	419	27.4

APPENDIX V.

REGULATIONS OF THE ENGLISH BOARD OF EDUCATION WITH REGARD TO THE INSTRUCTION OF INFANTS.

In infant schools and classes, the instruction includes the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, needlework (for which drawing may be substituted for infant boys), appropriate varied occupations, singing, simple physical exercises, and simple lessons on common things.

The instruction of infants' schools and classes must be adapted to the tender age of the scholars. The length of the lessons therefore should never exceed thirty minutes, and would be better reduced to fifteen or twenty minutes, and the lessons should be varied in length according to the section of the school. In the babies' room, which should always, where circumstances permit, be separated from other rooms by a partition (moveable or otherwise), and should contain abundant space for games and exercises, the actual work of the lesson should not be more than a quarter of an hour. Each lesson should be followed by intervals of rest or singing.

Two leading principles should be regarded as a sound basis for the education of early childhood.

- (1.) The recognition of the child's spontaneous activity, and the stimulation of this activity in certain well-defined directions by the teachers.
- (2.) The harmonious and complete development of the whole of a child's faculties. The teacher should pay especial regard to the love of movement, which can alone secure healthy physical conditions; to the observant use of the organs of sense, especially those of sight and touch; and to that eager desire of questioning which intelligent children exhibit. All these should be encouraged under due limitations, and should be developed simultaneously, so that each stage of development may be complete in itself.

It is often said that the Kindergarten Occupations are treated as mere toys, or amusing pastimes, because they are attractive for children, and the intellectual character of the "Gifts of Froebel" is disregarded, whereas the main object of these lessons is to stimulate intelligent individual efforts.

The attention of teachers should be directed to the chief consideration which underlies true methods of infant teaching, viz., the association of one lesson with another through some one leading idea or ideas. The reading lessons, occupations, and object lessons may all be usefully combined for one purpose, e.g., if the teacher wishes to impress on her class some knowledge of a domestic animal, she may usefully combine the object lesson for general study of its structure; the reading lesson for a knowledge of its habits and character; some occupation, such as pricking the outline, to impress an exact knowledge of its form; a song or simple story bearing on its association with human life; so that familiarity with animals, especially with domestic animals, and a kind treatment of them may be fostered.

On the other hand, teachers should be cautioned against the mere repetition of the same exercises and lessons; the progressive character of the whole scheme of instruction should be constantly kept in view; and each exercise should lead up to something beyond itself.

Pictures and flowers have been wisely introduced in greater abundance into infant schools, and have added much to their cheerfulness and attractiveness. They should be frequently taken down into the class, and made the subject of conversation. It is not enough that the children should be taught to observe these things and to answer questions upon them. They should be encouraged in every way to give expression in their own words to what they know, what they want to know, and what they think.

It will be found that the Elementary Subjects, when taught on right methods can be treated with greater variety; Reading becomes a Kindergarten lesson through pictures and word-building; Writing becomes a variety of Kindergarten drawing; elementary exercises in Number are associated with many of the Kindergarten occupations.

It is the experience of many good teachers that by the adoption of such methods it is found to be unnecessary before the sixth year is passed to employ books for Reading, except occasionally for a change of occupation, or perform any exercise in Writing except the elements of letters or to do any formal Arithmetic work on slates.

It may reasonably be hoped that the observance of these suggestions will materially improve the work of the younger children in infant schools and classes, by relieving the teacher from useless subdivision in the elementary subjects, and by rendering the instruction less formal, but more varied and attractive.

The following list of varied occupations may serve as a guide to teachers, especially in infant schools or classes which may be divided into two sections for these lessons.

A.—What children between the ages of five and seven can do :—

- Games with music.
- Games without music (guessing games, etc.; taking messages.)
- Picture lessons.
- Object lessons.
- Story lessons, e.g., stories from history; Grimm's Household Tales.
- Recitations.
- Paper folding.
- Mosaic with coloured paper; use of gum.
- Drawing. Brush drawing.
- Plaiting paper.
- Rolling simple geometrical forms.
- Measuring length. Estimating length.
- Weighing. Estimating weight.
- Setting a table (carrying a glass of water without spilling it. Moving cups without breaking them).
- Modelling in clay.
- Basket work.
- Cutting out patterns and shapes with scissors.
- Word building.
- Number pictures, with cubes, beads, &c.

B.—What children between three and five years of age can do :—

- Games with music.
- Games without music (guessing games, etc.).
- Recitations—nursery rhymes, etc.
- Picture lessons (learning to answer in complete sentences as to what they can see in a picture).
- Paper folding.
- Mosaic with coloured tablets.
- Drawing.
- Matching colours (picking out the same shades of wool from a heap of remnants).
- Plaiting paper.
- Working patterns with needle and woested.
- Threading beads in twos, threes, etc.
- Arranging shells in twos, threes, etc.
- Arranging "pictures of number" with cubes.
- Word building.

APPENDIX VI.

REGULATIONS OF THE ENGLISH BOARD OF EDUCATION WITH REGARD TO THE INSTRUCTION OF PUPIL-TEACHERS AFTER 1st AUGUST, 1905.

Extract from Memorandum prefixed to Regulations.

When these Regulations are fully operative—that is to say, after August 1st, 1905—boys or girls will become Pupil-Teachers at the age of sixteen (or in rural schools, fifteen), and will then, concurrently with their service in the Elementary School, receive adequate instruction for at least half their school-time at a Pupil-Teacher Centre for two years. Previous to this, from the age of about twelve to sixteen years, they would have passed their general education uninterruptedly in some Secondary School. Where no such Secondary School is available, they will presumably have stayed at an Elementary School until the age of fourteen, and will then have been admitted to the full-time Preparatory Classes which may under these Regulations be attached to a Pupil-Teacher Centre. Thus, in places where it is impossible for a boy or girl to obtain a good education at a regular Secondary School from twelve to sixteen years of age before commencing service as a Pupil-Teacher, the Pupil-Teacher Centre itself with its Preparatory Classes will provide a four years' course of instruction, in the subjects required for matriculation at a University or, in the case of less advanced students, in the subjects of the King's Scholarship Examination:—The first two of these four years being devoted entirely to the general education of the boy or girl who intends to become a Pupil-Teacher; the last two being devoted partly to general education, partly to service in an Elementary School.

Extracts from Regulations.

INSTRUCTION OF PUPIL-TEACHERS IN CENTRES.

11. Where possible, the instruction of Pupil-Teachers must be given in a Pupil-Teacher Centre recognised by the Board. A Centre may be attached to a Secondary School or a Higher Elementary School, or where circumstances make it desirable, may be separately established. A Centre must be open for at least five meetings each week during thirty-six or more weeks in the year. These five meetings must be held either in the morning or afternoon, and each must be of not less than two hours' duration. The Pupil-Teachers must attend with due regularity.

12. To obtain recognition by the Board a Centre must be provided either by the council of a county, borough, or urban district, or by a responsible body of Managers. Some person must be appointed to act as correspondent with the Board. Where the Education Act, 1903, is not in operation, a School Board may be recognised as the Managers of a Centre maintained by them under the provisions of the Education Act, 1901, or of any Act renewing or extending these provisions.

13. A Centre must be efficient and necessary; must not compete unduly with any other Centre or with a neighbouring school providing higher instruction; and, from its character and financial position, must be eligible to receive aid from public funds.

14. A Centre must be open at all times to the inspection of the officers of the Board. Notice must be sent to the Inspector, as soon as is possible in each case, of every date upon which the Centre will be closed or its ordinary work suspended.

15. The educational year of a Pupil-Teacher Centre must begin on the 1st of August and end on the 31st of July following.

16. The premises must be sanitary, convenient for teaching purposes, adapted to the circumstances of the Centre, and provided with satisfactory equipment and appliances.

17. The teaching staff in a Centre must be sufficient. The teachers must be approved by the Board. They must, as a rule, be paid fixed salaries, and their employment outside the Centre must not be such as will prevent the efficient discharge of their duties in the Centre.

In the case of a Centre attended mainly or entirely by girls, at least one half of the permanent staff other than the Headmaster or Headmistress must be women, but this rule will not be enforced in such a way as to require the dismissal of any teacher already employed in a centre.

18. A time-table and syllabus must be submitted for the approval of the Board. A copy of the time-table must be conspicuously exhibited in the Centre, and should not be modified without due notice to the Inspector. The syllabus should provide a graduated course or courses of instruction, leading up to a final examination, which may be either the King's Scholarship Examination or one of the examinations specified in Schedule I. (B.).

The regulations and syllabus for the King's Scholarship Examination may be obtained on application to the Secretary, Board of Education, Whitehall, London, S.W. Candidates cannot be admitted to the Examination unless application has been made to the Board of Education on their behalf before the 1st of October, in the year of their examination. The examinations for 1903 will be held on the 15th of December and following days. The examination for 1904 will probably be held on the 13th of December and following days, but the question of the period of the year in which the King's Scholarship Examination should be held will be subject to reconsideration.

The curriculum must always include reading and recitation, drawing, natural science, music, physical exercises, voice production, and, in the case of girls, needlework. Where a Centre is connected with a Secondary School or a higher Elementary School, proper provision must be made for the correlation of the instruction.

Registers showing the attendance of all Pupil-Teachers for instruction must be kept at the Centre in a manner approved by the Board. Systematic records of the conduct and progress of each Pupil-Teacher must also be kept.

19. (c.) A scholar attending under these Regulations as a day or evening scholar at a Centre shall not be required, as a condition of being admitted into or remaining in the Centre, to attend or abstain from attending any Sunday school, place of religious worship, religious observance, or instruction in religious subjects in the Centre or elsewhere; and

(d.) The times for religious worship or for any lesson on a religious subject shall be conveniently arranged for the purpose of allowing the withdrawal of any such scholar therefrom.

INSTRUCTION OF PUPILS IN PREPARATORY CLASSES.

20. Where it is shown to the satisfaction of the Board that no other facilities exist for the instruction before the age of sixteen of boys or girls intending to become Pupil-Teachers, Preparatory Classes attached to a Pupil-Teacher Centre may be recognised by the Board. Such Preparatory Classes must be open for at least ten meetings each week of not less than two hours each, either in the morning or afternoon, during thirty-six or more weeks in the year. The Classes must provide a suitable course of instruction during either one or two years for scholars who are intending to become Pupil-Teachers. The number of scholars attending the Preparatory Classes must not exceed by more than 50 per cent. the number of Pupil-Teachers in the Centre to which the Classes are attached. In other respects the provisions of Articles 11 to 19 apply to Preparatory Classes as well as to the Centres to which they are attached.

21. Pupils receiving instruction in a Preparatory Class may not serve in any capacity in a Public Elementary School.

22. In order to be admitted to Preparatory Classes, candidates must be suitable in respect of health, character, and freedom from personal defects.

23. Candidates must be between the ages of fourteen and sixteen at the date of their admission to a Preparatory Class. A declaration must be made on their behalf that they enter the Preparatory Class with the intention of eventually becoming Pupil-Teachers, and the Board must be satisfied of their fitness to be admitted and to profit by the instruction given.

GRANTS FOR CENTRES AND PREPARATORY CLASSES.

24. A grant of £3 will be paid annually to the Council or Managers by whom a Centre is provided, on account of each Pupil-Teacher employed in a Public Elementary School under Articles 2 to 10 of these Regulations, who has received instruction in the Centre for not less than 150 meetings in the year, and has attended an Elementary School for training for not less than 100 meetings or more than 200 in that year. Not more than two grants of £3 will be paid for any Pupil-Teacher under this Article.

25. A grant of £2 will be paid annually to the Council or Managers by whom a Centre is provided, for each pupil who has made not less than 250 attendances during the year in Preparatory Classes in connection with the Centre. Not more than £4 in all will be paid in respect of any pupil under this Article.

26. If any of the conditions on which a grant is payable is not fulfilled, or if the instruction or management is inefficient, the Board may withhold the grant, or, if they think fit, pay the grant with or without deductions, giving a warning that a grant will not again be paid under similar circumstances.

27. Grants are intended to supplement and not to supersede local effort, and must be expended to the satisfaction of the Board. An account of the income and expenditure of every Centre must be furnished annually to the Board.

EDUCATION (IRELAND).

REPORT

MR F. H. DALE,

His Majesty's Inspector of Schools, Board of Education, on Primary
Education in Ireland.

Ordered to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.



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